REPORT RESUMES

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FRONTIERS IN ADULT BASIC EDUCATION, A COMPILATION OF SELECTED PAPERS AND GROUP REPORTS PRESENTED AT THE SOUTHEASTERN REGION INSTITUTE FOR TEACHER-TRAINERS IN ADULT BASIC EDUCATION (FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY, AUGUST 1-26, 1966).

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SELECTED PAPERS AND GROUP REPORTS FROM A FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY TRAINING INSTITUTE ARE PRESENTED ON PSYCHOLOGICAL AND SOCIOLOGICAL DIMENSIONS OF POVERTY AND ILLITERACY, ADULT BASIC EDUCATION METHODS AND OBJECTIVES, PRINCIPLES OF ADULT LEARNING AND BEHAVIOR CHANGE, AND RELATED CONCERNS IN TEACHER TRAINING AND PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT. SPECIFIC PROBLEM AREAS IDENTIFIED BY TEACHER TRAINERS, THE OVERALL PROBLEM OF IDENTIFYING WITH AND MOTIVATING THE UNDEREDUCATED, ADULT CENTERED COUNSELING, CURRICULUM PLANNING, AND READING INSTRUCTION, EVALUATION OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS, ENLISTMENT OF COMMUNITY SUPPORT, LONG RANGE EFFECTS OF EARLY CULTURAL DEPRIVATION, AND STRATEGIES AND SUGGESTIONS FOR TRAINING INDIGENOUS NONPROFESSIONALS ARE AMONG THE MAJOR TOPICS CONSIDERED. TWO TABLES, CHAPTER NOTES AND REFERENCES, APPENDIXES, AND A MODEL OF THE LEARNING PROCESS ARE ALSO INCLUDED. (LY)

ED019575

FRONTIERS
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OF CONTINUING EDUCATION, THE FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY

FRONTIERS
IN ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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OFFICE OF CONTINUING EDUCATION, THE FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY

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FOREWORD

The Southeastern (Region IV) Institute for Teacher-Trainers in Adult Basic Education was held August 1-26, 1966, at The Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida.

The Institute was sponsored by the United States Office of Education, the National University Extension Association, and the Office of Continuing Education of The Florida State University.

The primary objectives of the Institute were to provide the kinds of information, experience, and opportunities for study and discussion which would enable the selected teacher-trainers to design and conduct effective in-service education programs for teachers of adult basic education in their home states.

In attendance at the Institute were teacher-trainers in adult basic education chosen by the state directors of adult basic education in their respective states. Included among the states participating in the Institute were: Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, South Carolina, and Tennessee.

The Director of the Institute was Dr. Sam E. Hand, Office of Continuing Education, The Florida State University. The program Chairman was Dr. Curtis Ulmer, Consultant in Adult Basic Education, The Florida State Department of Education.

FRONTIERS in Adult Basic Education was compiled and edited by William H. Puder and Dr. Sam E. Hand, Office of Continuing Education, The Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The cooperation and significant contributions of the Adult Education staff of the Florida State Department of Education in the planning and the implementation of the Institute are gratefully acknowledged.

* * * * * * * *

IDENTIFICATION WITH THE UNDER-EDUCATED

George L. Stevens
Reading Consultant
Riverdale, Maryland

Let me read you some facts and figures taken from documents published by the United States Office of Education: 46 per cent of the total labor force in the United States does not have a high school diploma.

Sixty-four per cent of the unemployed do not have a high school diploma.

Forty-five per cent of those citizens who earn less than 2,000 dollars a year have only an eight-grade education.

Sixty-two per cent of citizens receiving relief checks in the United States do not have as much as an eighth-grade education.

There are 25,300,000 individuals in the United States who are 14 years of age or older, and who do not have an eighth-grade education.

There are 11,300,000 individuals in the United States who do not have a fifth-grade education.

And there are 3,000,000 totally illiterate United States citizens in the country.

Now, let me quote some statistics taken from a document published by the Department of Labor:

In 1939, one out of every four citizens in the U.S. was unskilled.
In 1960, one of 16 U.S. citizens in unskilled
In 1970, this ratio will have risen to one unskilled citizen for every 20 citizens.

The job that lies ahead for teacher-trainers in adult basic education is a large one. The job is not a "Johnny-come-lately" situation; poverty, illiteracy, functional illiteracy, unemployment, unskilled laborers, cultural deprivation, and a host of sociological characteristics mark the ABE program that has been with us for years.

Perhaps that is the reason we teacher-trainers who like to think of ourselves as middle-class individuals, United States citizens in the lower and upper-middle class experience difficulty when we attempt to understand the problems of the under-educated.

Perhaps our familiarity with the adult basic education program has caused us to lose contact with these people and has caused us to lose sight of the problems and the cultural milieu of the adult basic education student.

Today, in an effort to "identify" with the physical emotional, and sociological characteristics of the adult basic education student. let's perform an experiment. On your desk before you, you will find a short ten-minute test of your ability to translate Chaucerian Middle English words and phrases. (A copy of the test is attached.)

At the end of a timed ten-minute period, we will review your answers, grade the papers, and seek to obtain some form of feed back in the form of your emotional reaction to the test...

Now that the ten minutes are over, did you find they were long ones? I'm sure you did. Any adult student, whether highly educated or not, experiences frustration, anxiety, tension, and insecurity when confronted with a situation he does not wholly understand. I am certain you will agree with me that this test of your Middle English speaking and translating skills was a situation which tended to create frustration, tension, anxiety, insecurity on your part.

Very much as you experience these psychological and emotional reactions to a situation in the "unknown" so too will your adult basic education students experience similar psychological and emotional anxieties. Characteristically, the same can be said of your teacher-trainers, those people that you will train to enter the field to train, in turn, the adult basic student.

Perhaps this little demonstration has its greatest value in the fact that it may provide some insight into what goes on in an adult's mind during the test situation. For the adult basic education student every hour in the classroom is a "test" situation.

As teacher-trainers, and as teachers, we are embarked on a successful career in adult basic teaching if we can identify ourselves with the student from the outset of our teaching program. Only when we penetrate the facade of emotional insecurity and cultural differentiation that shield the adult basic education student from the world, can we rise to meet the challenge of the adult basic teaching task.

MIDDLE ENGLISH READING TEST

FORM A
ADULT TEST

By
Geoffrey Chaucer
George Stevens

Published 1965 by the Inter-University Workshop
University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

TEST 1
CONTEXTUAL VOCABULARY

DIRECTIONS: This is a test of your ability to read Middle English. Read the selection below silently while the administrator reads it orally.

Notice that in this selection certain passages are marked by brackets. Note the list of words beside the passage and find the bracketed passage which contains the synonym for each. Answer the question by marking the answer space at the end of the question which has the same number as the bracketed passage which contains the correct answer.

You may reread the passage if necessary.

You will have ten minutes to complete this test.

The Canterbury Tales

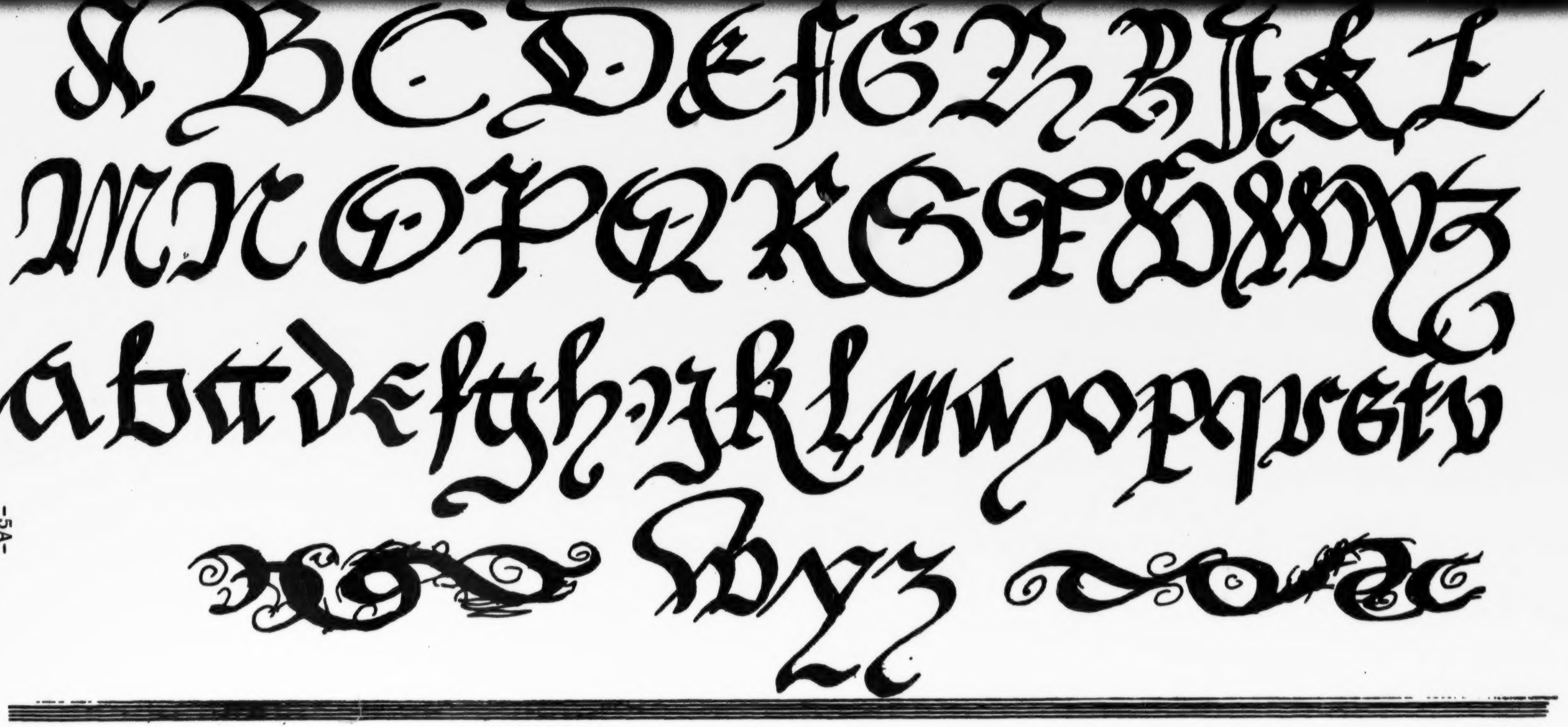
Whan that Aprill with his shoures soote	1, 2	1.	sweet	1. _ 2. _ 3. _ 4. _ 5. _
The droghte of March hath perced to the roote,	3, 4	2.	shower	1. _ 2. _ 3. _ 4. _ 5. _
And bathed every veyne in swich licour	5, 6	3.	drought	3. _ 4. _ 5. _ 6. _ 7. _
Of which vertu engendred is the flour;	7, 8	4.	vein	3. _ 4. _ 5. _ 6. _ 7. _
Whan Zephirus eek with his swete breeth	9, 10	5.	flower	6. _ 7. _ 8. _ 9. _ 10. _
Inspired hath in every holt and heeth	11, 12	6.	also	6. _ 7. _ 8. _ 9. _ 10. _
The tendre croppes, and the yonge sonne	13, 14	7.	field	8. _ 9. _ 10. _ 11. _ 12. _
Hath in the Ram his halfe cours yronne;	15, 16	8.	wood	8. _ 9. _ 10. _ 11. _ 12. _
And small foweles maken melodye,	17	9.	run	13. _ 14. _ 15. _ 16. _ 17. _
That slepen al the nyght with open ye--	18, 19	10.	shoots	13. _ 14. _ 15. _ 16. _ 17. _
So priketh hem nature in hir corages;	20, 21	11.	birds	16. _ 17. _ 18. _ 19. _ 20. _
Thanne longen folk to goon on pilgrimages,	22, 23	12.	them	16. _ 17. _ 18. _ 19. _ 20. _

Continued: Test 1. Contextual Vocabulary

and palmeres for to seken ⌊24⌋ straunge strondes ⌊25⌋	13. shores	21. _ 22. _ 23. _ 24. _ 25. _
To ferne halwes ⌊26⌋ kowthe in sondry londes; ⌊27⌋	14. known	26. _ 27. _ 28. _ 29. _ 30. _
And specially from every shires ende ⌊28⌋	15. shrines	26. _ 27. _ 28. _ 29. _ 30. _
Of Engelond to Caunterbury ⌊29⌋ they wende, ⌊30⌋	16. foreign	26. _ 27. _ 28. _ 29. _ 30. _
The hooly, blisful ⌊31⌋ martir for to seke, ⌊32⌋	17. help	31. _ 32. _ 33. _ 34. _ 35. _
That hem ⌊33⌋ hath holpen ⌊34⌋ whan that they were seeke. ⌊35⌋	18. seek	31. _ 32. _ 33. _ 34. _ 35. _

---

* Directions taken directly from Iowa Silent Reading Test.



INSTRUCTIONS: Reproduce the above letters as well as you can on the lines provided below.

REACTION OF TEACHER-TRAINERS TO SESSION LED BY ADULT BASIC EDUCATION STUDENTS FROM LEON COUNTY, FLORIDA

Institute teacher-trainers derived these major learnings from an institute panel session led by adult basic education students from Leon County, Florida. Included in the lessons learned were those with philosophical, psychological, and sociological implications:

1. Philosophical Implications
   Teachers need to demonstrate a genuine operational belief in the worth and dignity of each individual regardless of his (the student's) social, economic, or academic status.

2. Psychological Implications
   Adults can learn, want to learn, and do learn.

   a. Adults know what they want to learn.

   b. Adults should be involved in setting up objectives and/or goals.

   c. At the outset, the adult's immediate goals are of more importance to him than long-range goals.

3. Sociological Implications
   Adults want and need to belong to accepted groups, even as children desire to belong to certain groups.

   a. The adult basic education student's sense of values may differ from those of the middle class.

   b. Teachers need to exercise emphathy rather than sympathy in dealing with adult learners, and particularly adult basic education students.

MAJOR PROBLEM AREAS IDENTIFIED BY TEACHER-TRAINERS IN ADULT BASIC EDUCATION AT THE OUTSET OF THE INSTITUTE

1. How to select proper materials for use in adult basic education classes.
2. How to recruit adult basic education students.
3. How to evaluate progress of the adult basic education student.
4. How to keep the student in the classroom and prevent drop-outs.
5. How to approach the adult basic education student at his level.
6. How to identify the real needs of adult basic education students at varying levels of learning.
7. How to identify and how to use devices to stimulate interests of adult basic education students during the early phases of the program.
8. How to motivate teachers of adult basic education students to employ new teaching methods and devices.
9. How to establish a "Child Care Center" for employed adult basic education students.
10. How to motivate potential students to attend future classes.
11. How to resolve the family problems of adult basic education students.
12. How to establish an adult basic education program at the ninth through twelfth-grade levels.
13. How to motivate and maintain the interest of students who come to class fatigued from work.
14. How to organize a transportation network so that adults can be assured of transportation to the school.
15. How to free the adult basic education school from the "Welfare Image."
16. How to organize and administrate an adult basic education program.
17. How to establish and maintain inter-agency cooperation.
18. How to test adult basic education students without the use of formal and written tests.
19. How to publicize adult basic education classes.
20. How to instruct ABE individuals in person-to-person contact within a class session.
21. How to obtain vocational instruction or how to coordinate with the adult vocational program at the adult basic education level.
22. How to obtain resource people who have vacational skills.
23. How to apply techniques that are appropriate for beginning readers in adult basic education.
24. How to evaluate the effectiveness of phonetic techniques in beginning reading at the adult basic education level.
25. How to diagnose a reading problem of adult basic education students, and how to establish their appropriate reading levels.

26. How to coordinate the adult basic education program with the adult high school.
27. How to obtain adequate and appropriate multi-level reading materials.
28. How to appropriately teach handwriting at the adult basic education level.
29. How to unify and establish a unified curriculum in adult basic education.
30. How to obtain federal aid for a local basic education program.
31. How to establish a standard system of evaluation for determining an appropriate amount of time for a certain number of credits in the adult basic education program.
32. How to evaluate the effect which returning GI's or veterans will have on the ABE program.
33. How to motivate students in a prison.
34. How to establish an effective program of teacher selection and recruitment for adult basic education programs.
35. How to help local adult basic education officials obtain the support and guidance of state universities.
36. How to establish a program of certificates and awards for adult basic education achievements.
37. How to teach several levels of educational achievement in a single classroom.
38. How to "lift" the culturally deprived from their old environment to a newer middle-class environment.

LONG-RANGE EFFECTS OF EARLY CULTURAL DEPRIVATION

Wallace A. Kennedy, Ph. D.,
Associate Professor, Department of Psychology
The Florida State University

I think at the outset I should make some statements which I consider essential to the understanding of the long-range effects of cultural deprivation. First, in studies across the nation involving hundreds of thousands of children, there is a very clear trend which indicates that culturally deprived children are at an extreme disadvantage intellectually and academically throughout their school career. Second, that in spite of a number of crash programs, this deficit of about 20 points intellectually and 20 per cent grade standing is the mean for the group of children as a whole with a great deal of uniformity across studies. And third, that this deficit is already in effect at its full force at the beginning of school.

I should like today to address myself to the question of "What are the determining factors in this area?" and second, "What are the possibilities for alleviation?"

As you no doubt know, the controversy between the environmentalists and the geneticists has see-sawed back and forth through the ages. In general, as studies by Galton were interpreted in the light of Darwin's findings, the concept of inherited intelligence gained considerable strength. Galton's work traced hereditary genius through families in England, and his study was supported by Goddard in this country, where Goddard, in his now famous study of the Kallikak family. demonstrated the long familiar trends in mental retardation. In this controversy one of the key issues was: "When do the effects of environment begin?" The 19th-century concept held that the environment begins at birth. The 19th-century scientists had finally put to bed some of the early superstitions of maternal "impression" and for the world--outside of Russia--dropped the Lemarekian concept of the inheritance of acquired characteristics. However, more recently, with a better understanding of the function of the DNA and RNA protein molecules as gross determiners of behavior, this whole controversy has been reopened. Harowitz, following the pioneering work of Beatle and Tatum, first suggested that the gene is a representation of the enzyme molecule and acts in a role analogous to that of a computer in industry which is used to direct some complex milling process. The gene, however, dictates the complex synthesizing of an enzyme consisting of hundreds of amino acid units arranged end-to-end in a specific and unique order.

It thus follows that a gene mutation which often results from a single ionization may serve not only as an enzyme, but also as a catalyst for the production of new enzymes. What happens is analogous to the altering of an industrail template during the process of milling, an altering which would result, not simply in the ateration of one unit, but in the altering of all the units which followed in the production. Thus, the existence of the genetic code in the protein molecule added new evidence that the hereditary link of the genes, insulated from wear-and-tear of everyday experience, should be able to endure quite well the shock of its donor being exposed to some frightening spectacle, such as snarling dogs or hairy-chested men. It does not stretch the imagination to believe that anything which causes massive chemical changes within the body could well alter the template and thus introduce massive changes in the growth pattern of the whole individual. The inescapable conclusion is that one does not simply have to consider the prenatal environment of the growing fetus in the last few months of pregnancy; but one must consider the pre-prenatal environment of the germ cells and the chemical influences upon them throughout the life-time of the donor and perhaps the environment several generations in the past. Thus, the environment--specifically, the bio-chemical environment--the nutritional environment, the oxygen intake, metabolism, and the general hormonal environment within the body can very well become one of the crucial elements in growth and development.

In this vein, Passamanic has reviewed some extremely interesting findings with regard to the effects of early environmental deprivation and by early, he means prenatal deprivation. He shows how, when one finds a massive deprication occuring during the prenatal period, that the number of decective children conceived characteristics is greatly increased. This interestingly enough, is quite consistent with the findings of the Fels group under Lester Sontag, who demonstrated rather conclusively that there is a pronounced interaction between the mother's emotional health and the physiologically measured emotional stability of the infant. The Fels group thinks that such interaction results because of the "feed-back loop." That is, irritated mothers have irritated babies which irritate the mother further, which causes the mothers to behave in an irritating fashion to the newborn. The "feedback loop" perpetuates this interaction for a considerable period of time. There are, then, many evidences in addition to Passamanic's and Montague's studies, that "deprived" youngsters or youngsters in an inadequate environment--inadequate from the point of view of basic subsistence, unstable from the point of view of medical attention, unstable from the point of view of inadequate, unbalanced diets, unstable from the point of view of gross stresses and strains which accompany grinding poverty--tend to begin life at a "minus" position. Such youngsters are "minus" in that they are offten premature, often malnourished and often suffering from a wide varieth of congenital defects. One concedes this, that the child begins life at a minus position. The question then arised: "What comes next?" And, in the words of Will Rogers, what comes next is, "Them that has, gets."

The child from the culturally deprived home is born into an environment which lacks the social and intellectual stimulation necessary for minimum growth in the intellectual processes.

In the Cooperative Developmental Study section at New Orleans, where children had received adequate prenatal care and dietary supplements for the mothers, such that the children, at birth on the Bailey scale, indicated nearly normal physical and intellectual growth and--in some cases, above normal psychological growth--the grinding monotony and lack of stimulation of the environment take their toll. Between the second and third year of life, the gap between the deprived child and the non-deprived child truly expands. This expansion is at a time when the language facility of the average child is rising geometrically and concepts are emerging one after another and interlocking as time progresses. It becomes increasingly apparent, that intelligence, the whole mechanism of intellectual growth, which is a combination of visual-motor perceptions and language facilitation, depends to a great extent on the adequacy of the environment. There is no point here, I think, in reviewing the whole Iowa controversy of the 1940's on the stability of the I.Q. I think in the middle of the 20th century we can say, without reserve, that the I.Q. is modifiable. The question that I want to raise today is, "How much is it modifiable and when is the optimal time to modify it?" To do this, I should like to review the research done by the Human Development Clinic at Florida State University in 1961-62 when we conducted a regional, normative study of intelligence.

Most of you probably are aware that during the academic year 1961-62, the Human Development Clinic at FSU conducted a regional normative study of intelligence and achievement on what was then the largest minority group of culturally deprived children in the south. Negro elementary school children from the five southeastern states of Tennessee, Georgia, South Carolina, Florida and Alabama. With very few exceptions these subjects fell into the lower socio-economic levels of the McGuire-White index, which is based on the income, occupational status, and educational attainment of the parents. The study sampled (on a stratified random basis) urban, rural, and metropolitan Negro elementary school children equally distributed in grades one through six, male and female. In the main, the study investigated the motor skills, intelligence, and achievement of 1800 children ranging in age from five-and-a-half to sixteen.

In brief, this group of children obtained very low scores. Both achievement and intellectual variables correlated positively with socio-economic level. The Stanford-Binet mean I.Q. was 80 for the group as a whole, and ranged from 105 for the upper socio-economic group to 78 for the low group. A proportional deficit was demonstrated on the California Achievement Test. Motor skills, motor development, and visual motor development, particularly as measured by the Goodenough Draw-A-Man Test, along with its measurement of the perception of human form, were related to the socio-economic level of this group.

There are two obvious interpretations of the 20-point mean difference between this low socio-economic group and the normal population of the country upon which the standardization of the 1960 Binet was made. The first of these views considers the fact that an intelligence test developed and standardized for one population is unsuitable for another population and cannot be considered valid: thus the deficit in I.Q. obtained for the culturally deprived group would simply be a function of the unsuitability of the test for this population. This is true because intelligence may be defined as the amount of cultural assimilation that an individual child has vantaged, and in order to measure this cultural assimilation, one has to be measuring the variables within the culture of this child. This line of reasoning would lead to the conclusions that the solution to the deficit obtained would be in the creation of a new intelligence test suitable for making predictions regarding this cultural minority's adaptation to its environment. The staff of the Human Development Clinic felt this to be a very unrealistic interpretation in the middle of the 20th Century in the United States.

A second, broader, and much more realistic interpretation of this deficit is that it is a real and highly significant one, because those very factors which are sampled by this test are indeed factors which are highly signigicant in predicting adaptation to the American culture, most particularly to the American middle-class educational system as a whole, and most strikingly at the upper grade levels. Thus, it would be predicted that children who score poorly on a major intelligence test and a major achievement test will be at a severe disadvantage throughout their lives as they attempt to adjust to the middle-class American which dominates the school and upper end of the employment continuum. This interpretation holds that the development of any artificial norms, norms which could be applied to Negro children only, or the culturally deprived children only, would lose all relevance if used outside the ghetto of the deprived area; and good adjustment or bad adjuçtment to a deprived area is probably of little significance when considered in light of the goals of American democracy.

In 1965, we re-evaluated one-fifth of the 1960 sample. We were able to locate for retesting 312 of the 360 children and considerable data were obtained for an additional 16 students. We again gathered achievement date, as well as the the demographic data obtained in 1960 in regard to living family structure, employment income, educational attainment, and the like. The I.Q. remained substantially the same with this group of the sample. In 1960, the mean I.Q. was 78.9; in 1965, 79.2. These obviously both round to a mean I.Q. of 79, a nonsignificant change. Standard deviation had increases from 12.6 in 1960 to 14.3 in 1965, and the range in scores had increased slightly. Although there was a tendency for the I.Q.'s to remain constant across grade levels, as had been observed in 1960, there was the obvious decline in intelligence associated with chronological age.

This finding, illustrated in Tables 1 and 2, confirms the hypothesis projected by Schaffer in 1964, that a sampling method of representing grades rather than chronological age produced a negative correlation of mean I.Q. with age. Thus, because of promotional policies in school, the duller children would be more likely to be found in the upper age range andthe brighter children in the lower age range. This was a sampling artifact rather than any trend, for the I.Q. of the individual children does not decrease over an age span. The hypothesis was further confirmed by the fact that there was not a decrease in I.Q. over the four-year span.

A very definite relationship between occupational status and I.Q. was found in 1960. But the fact that the entire sample was crowded into the bottom socio-economic level clouds the issue some-what, since the frequencies at various occupational levels are not the same, the upper levels hardly being represented at all.

California Achievement Test data reveal a continuation of the trend, so clearly noticed in 1960, for Negro children to continue to fall behind academically, so that retardation at the fifth-grade level was quite severe. Although the number of dropouts in the sample so far has been small, only 24, nevertheless the children are clearly in very serious academic difficulty when compared with the normative sample. The tendency for occupational status to be a good predictor of I.Q. is also observed in achievement data, where one finds a grade difference in the mean between the fifth level and the seventh level of socio-economic status. This, of course, makes no reference to the first four levels.

Now how does this relate to the theme I have tried to develop? First, we have found the entire population to have a great deal of difficulty on visual motor tasks and thus the statement, which one so often hears but never finds documented, that Negro children are highly skilled in terms of motor tasks and that their only intellectual problem is that of the verbal aspect, is simply not confirmed. In addition to the visual motor tests which are distributed throughout the Stanford-Binet L-M The entire sample of 1800 was administered the Goodenough Draw-A-Man Test which also gives the opportunity to see visual motor distortions. The results of an examination of the records of these children indicate a high frequency of organic signs, on both instruments, and a nearly normal distribution of these signs. This frequency of signs was too high, and the distribution too symetrical to be the result of brain lesions. I would like to submit to you that there are probably two good reasons for this that have relevance for your consideration of the evidence of brain damage. Most significant is the fact that, despite the poor prenatal and post-natal care of these children, poor medical care, general lack of nutrition, and the like, there is a distant possibility that central nervous system would be much more likely to occur in this population. But the second point is the fact that tests of the central nervous system, particularly those that have already been presented to you by the gentlemen who preceded me, all depend, I believe, to a great extent on early experience and early practice.

Wood and Cottrell, in a research project at Florida State University, found that with a small amount of pre-practice on a related task, one can make improvement in the Bender-Gestalt performance of deprived children.

Culturally deprived children, who have been raised in homes without crayons and pencils and drawing boards, black boards and little games at a very early age, are going to have a large deficit in their perceptual ability, a deficit which may be modifiable, but which may very closely resemble central nervous system damage. This was brought out quite clearly in the Farmville, Virginia, project reported by Green of Michigan State University. When we tested these children who had been out of school for four years, and particularly those who had never gone to school, they were found to be not only unable to make the letters of the alphabet, but they were literally unable to hold pencils in their hands.

Thus, I think we must be extremely careful in our conceptualizations of what is physical and what is learned, and we must also make allowances for the fact that stimulus deprivation and experience deprivation may lead to a permanent deficit in visual motor ability which is not related to actual damage to the central nervous system. It would seem important, before one goes down a long and involved track generating hypotheses about the existence of obscure lesions, that one should first take into account the possibility that the child has not had adequate experience with the types of stimuli that may have been presented to him.

At this point, then, I think I should make clear my conception of the problem that we face. I believe that the inspired program conceived in the minds of Blatt, Gray, and Deutch carries out by the Office of Education is an excellent first step. I think however, that it is naive to assume that one can wipe out 5½ years of gross cultural, dietary and medical deprivation in a six-weeks summer schedule prior to the beginning of school. I think it is clear that, once this level of deprivation is established, its resultant behavior is very difficult to modify. It is not to say that there are not outstanding examples of children who have broken out of this poverty cycle. It is not to say that adult education, which teaches young adults at a low level of mental functioning, is not a reasonable activity to undertake. The problem is so serious I feel that we should attack it at all angles. My bias is simply this: the root of this problem lies in the prenatal care, in early dietary problems in the child and in the lack of concept vacabulary and visual-motor training, between the years of two and three. What I would like to suggest is the only long-range solution to this problem of intellectual deficiency: a federally-financed, large-scale, all-day nursery school program, which takes care of the children during the time when the parents are working from 8 a.m. to 5 p.m., which affords them a reasonably balanced diet for at least two meals a day, and which gives them the kind of intellectual stimulation which is the birthright of middle-class children.

If we can equip these children during critical early periods of the pre-school years whith the conceptual tools necessary for the growth of intelligence, I feel that we can once and for all break out of this cycle.

The cost of such a program may be tremendous, but the cost to society of supporting as many as 6,000,000 persons who are functioning below the average range of intelligence is much higher. We can quickly see that we are dealing with a problen of staggering cost. It would appear that a short-term, short-run, two-or-three year crash program to reverse this trend of sub-normal intellectual drive and sub-normal intellectual functioning is well worth the expense.

TABLE 1

STANFORD-BINET MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS BY GRADE FOR THE SAMPLE

	1960			1965		
Grade	N	Mean	S.D.	N.	Mean	S.D.
1	52	81.2	9.7			
2	52	77.8	13.5			
3	53	81.4	14.3			
4	53	76.9	12.5	16	76.7	9.3
5	50	76.9	12.9	46	85.3	15.0
6	52	79.1	13.6	56	81.0	14.0
7				56	81.7	14.4
8				44	75.3	14.6
9				56	75.8	16.0
10				38	77.7	13.9
Total	312	78.9	12.6	312	79.2	14.3

TABLE 2

STANDARD-BINET IQ MEAND AND STANDARD DEVIATION BY CHRONOLOGICAL AGE FOR THE SAMPLE

	1960			1965		
C.A.	N.	Mean	S.D.	N.	Mean	S.D.
5	12	86.8	7.6			
6	47	83.2	9.4			
7	41	81.6	13.3			
8	53	79.7	12.5			
9	45	77.5	13.0			
10	48	79.8	15.3	40	90.0	11.3
11	43	76.9	12.4	39	84.1	11.6
12	12	69.9	7.1	50	85.6	13.9
13	7	76.1	8.1	44	77.3	10.5
14	4	63.3	9.0	54	76.3	15.1
15				48	75.0	14.0
16				26	68.8	13.0
17				7	64.6	9.2
18				3	67.7	16.1
19				1	74.0	0.0

POVERTY: AS VIEWED BY THE SOCIOLOGIST

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The poor will always be with us. Poverty, however, must be annihilated. Analogous to poor people and poverty are physical illness and epidemics. Persons still become sick; epidemic illness, on the other hand, is being eliminated. Poverty is hardly an economic problem alone. Poverty is a state of mind, a way of feeling, a manner of behaving, a state untouched by economic change alone. Poor people, however, are able to overcome their state of economic insecurity through economic change.

Frequently, poor people are visualized as hard-working stoics who have encountered bad luck. People in poverty, on the other hand, are more likely to be seen as lazy, dirty, smelly, promiscuous, insincere, loud, lacking motivation, undeserving, needing to be punished and unworthy of anything better.

Attitudes toward the poor reflect the feeling that they can be assisted. However, attitudes toward poverty indicate that absolutely nothing can be done. No matter what the consequences of a reorganization of the American social structure, there will always be persons who are at the lower end of the continuum in task performance. These persons may perform lower status tasks, or they may have poor performance of more difficult occupational roles. Included in this category are individuals who at one time performed better than presently and therefore have more recently lost status (e.g. aging, alcoholism, addiction) as well as others whose more recent task performance deficit has to do with situations outside of the individual's control, (e.g. illness, financial catastrophe, family stress).

There has been a tendency to lump all poor people or persons involved in poverty under a single rubric. This, of course, assumes that there is something similar about these persons in their behavior and attitude performance, belief system, language, or some other life-style characteristic. People in poverty are not, nor can they be described, as persons maintaining a culture exclusive of the greater American ethos. No matter how poverty-stricken individuals may be, one must remember that the culture in which they were reared has influenced their life situations, values, and desires. In other words, the overt behaviors attributed to poverty persons are the most logical, of course, and frequently the only alternatives--to social stress provided by the social structure.

A frequent accusation leveled at the habitually poor is, "they don't care." Not caring means a lack of motivations. All human beings are born with a certain degree of motivation. This is demonstrable in inquisitiveness and acquisitiveness. Central nervous system stimuli triggering these behaviors are influenced by the surrounding culture. Based upon the belief and ideals of the culture, these behaviors are either inhibited or stimulated by the social structure, social organization of communities, and the form of social interaction which takes place within families and at other levels of human experience.

Poverty people "don't want to work, they don't want an education. they want a handout and they want to know what's in it for me." However, it they are this way it is because non-poverty persons permit no alternatives. Negative adjectives used to desbribe lower-class persons are used most prominently by the middle-class. What one frequently forgets is that poverty is a two-way process. The disadvantaged, however, do not see themselves as lazy, shiftless, dirty, promiscuous, etc. Behavior attributed to people in poverty is a reflection of the inner guts of the middle-classes. These adjectives, whether real or not, are middle-class reactions to social situations established by the middle-class social structure, yet inadequate processes have been provided for the accomplishment of middle-class goals in the desired middle-class manner.

Poverty is the most disabling illness in the United States today. Poor people have always been with us, but only more recently have they come to social attention. Poverty, like most social problems, has existed for several thousand years with little recognition. Charles Dickens' Oliver Twist[1] in the early 19th Century and the "muckrakers," including Lincoln Stephens and Upton Sinclair in the early 1900's, brought poverty to the attention of the literary world. Upton Sinclair expressed disappointment that the public and critics were more influenced by his description of the corrupted meat supply, in The Jungle,[2] than what he intended his novel to convey, i.e. the exploitation of the worker. Lincoln Stephens in his Autobiography vividly described the lower-class ghetto:

> "Dew is a shower of jewels--in the country, and as it melts in the morning sun, it sweetens the air. Not in a city. Police headquarters was in a tenement neighborhood, which seemed to steam on warm nights and sweat by day. I can remember still the damp, smelly chill of the asphalt pavement that greeted me when I came to my office in the early mornings. The tenements stank, the alleys puffed forth the stenches of the night. Slatternly women hung out of the windows to breathe and to gossip or quarrel across the courts; idle men and boys hung, half-dressed, over the old iron fences or sat recovering from the night on the stoops of the houses which once has been the fine homes of the

> old families long since moved uptown. There was a business man in a new building next door to headquarters. He was a handsome, well-dressed wholesale dealer in brass fixtures and plumbers' supplies, and he may have thought he was waiting for buyers, but he was looking for something to happen, like the other neighbors. When a Black Maria drove up and discharged a load of thieves, prostitutes, broken strikers, or gambling implements, he joined the crowd of loafers, men, women, and children, who gathered to enjoy the sight."3

Prior to the social reforms of the 1930's poverty was a private affair. Organized assistance most often came from private non-profit social welfare agencies. Only more recently has the government at federal, state, and local levels intervened.

If one compares poverty in the past with contemporary poverty, there are numerous contrasting situations. Through the late 19th Century a greater proportion of each nation's total population was economically deprived. A few of the fairly well-to-do entrepreneurs maintained their businesses in their homes within the same neighborhoods in which poor lived. Even though they were "well-heeled," or better off than the poverty group, little affluence was demonstrable. In other words, the affluence was hidden in terms of securities and land-ownership, but was not conspicuous through bigger and better homes, flashier automobiles, and exorbitant frills to flaunt before the poor. Therefore, the poor had less contact with affluence except, of course, when royalty or a member of the large landed gentry rode through poverty areas; which was seldom.

Also the value system of the Western World supported the poor as a style of life with which one should be happy. If not happiness, at-least stoicism should prevail. Acceptance of life as it is, rather than trying to do something about it, was important to Western values through the 19th Century. A scientific approach to man's control over natural and social phenomena is relatively recent. Support for the "live and let live" attitude also came from the Protestant ethic. In fact, it was the "Protestant ethic and the spirit of Capitalism," to paraphrase Max Weber,4 which created the reciprocity between the values of honesty, virtue, proficiency, and hard work. The value of hard work and a division of labor based upon differential rewards for differences in productivity helped to establish status differentials.

Other differences between poverty today and yesterday are transportation, health, and education differentials. The extremely wealthy had more affluent-appearing carriages yet the majority of the population travelled by walking or horseback. Plagues bothered the total population, not just the poor. There were, of course, a few illnesses which were known as "rich man's disease," i.e., gout. However, most citizens had equal exposure to illness, with nutrition, housing, and clothing being the modifying differential between classes. Education was only for the extremely wealthy and a few of the extremely poor. Therefore, the majority of the population had very little education and what education they had was seldom gained formally, but through informal channels throughout life situations. In the past, formal education had less effect upon occupation while experience was the predominant factor.

The more recent affluent society has brought with it a large need for material items which, at one time, were considered to be superfluous in the community yet today are viewed as necessities. These "Necessities" are desired by persons in lower classes to the same extent as by those of means. The change of luxury items to necessities is brough about by changes in our economic structure in which advertisement and government control have played a major factor.

Crime and delinquency and other forms of deviancy during earlier years of poverty were maintained within poverty ghettos. Keeping deviance hidden within the areas of poverty permitted little public attention. Slums in contemporary America affluent areas and the interaction between these constantly reinforces the differences and conflicts between the "haves" and the "have nots." This reciprocity most frequently results in behavior defined by the haves as criminal.

Massive poverty in the United States today is intolerable because it is avoidable. It is not hidden and reflects our whole economic and social performance. Everyone loses with poverty. Poverty affects not only the poor but it inhibits cultural and economic development of the entire community. Poverty is dynamic and relative and must be viewed within its social context. The major difficulty is that the economic and social conditions are so interactive that causes and effects are seldom determinable.

Because poor persons live in the same areas, observable behavior has been translated into values which lower-class, middle-class, and upper-class persons ascribe as characteristic of all persons in this category. This, however, is not necessarily valid. One sociologist[5] has defined various levels of the poor who, due to different socio-economic circumstances, maintain dissimilar value systems.

The "stable poor" are classified by having economic security and family stability. This category of persons is probably the easiest with which to work and has little need for welfare, living or financial assistance. These persons have values and aspirations for middle-class success and most frequently stimulate their young to upward mobility. Economic security in this situation means there is an occupation which permits the necessities of life with few luxuries.

However, their family life situation is one in which cohesiveness, familial intergration, and little deviancy from societal norms exist.

A second type has been classified as the "strained." These persons have secure economic patterns but an unstable family. Occupational skills and satisfaction are relatively high yet inadequate family relationships frequently stimulate absenteeism, and occasional erratic job performance which in turn, reflects itself within family interaction. High rates of delinquency and family disorganization, i.e., separation, desertion, and divorce are frequent. Social service and assistance in communication and living are essential while little or no economic aid is necessary in order to overcome familial instability.

"Copers" are considered another category. These are characterized by having economic insecurity and family stability. Persons who lack skills, who lack the ability to gain skills for economic security yet have family relationships which are relatively solid, are the copers. Equitable employment is a major difficulty. Frequently these persons are occupationally functional at a borderline level. They have difficulty educating and re-educating themselves. They have problems in learning skills and maintaining and improving skills. Therefore, programs emphasizing economic solutions are seldom functional because economic assistance is necessary over extended periods of training and retraining. If, during this period, educational and training success is limited, then the stipend creates dissonance.

The "unstable" is the fourth type. This represents the so-called hard-core family, or "hard to reach," where both economic insecurity and family instability exist. Little is known as to how to assist these individuals because they have, through the cycle of poverty over many generations, found themselves in a position where it is not only impossible to develop economic skills, but also impossible to relate to others in a manner which provides familial stability. Each of these ideal types has associated with it its own set of social, economic, and political behaviors and values. All, to varying degrees, are outside of the main stream of American life.

Although the lack of stable income is a problem for people in poverty, it is not the major contributing factor. Financial assistance under many poverty conditions is necessary, but it alone will not break the vicious circle of inter-generational poverty. If one compares poverty people with non-poverty persons, controlling for income and its associated problems, it is relatively clear that poverty is more a psychological phenomenon than an economic one. Various reactions or consequences to one's level of real income depend upon the circumstances in which they are received.[6] The manner in which money is earned, the social situation of the earner or recipient, the religious, social, political, economic forces stimulating, directing and inhibiting. disbursement, and the psychological make-up, in terms of need satisfaction of the individual, interact to determine the potential social economic power of the earner. A decrease in psychological consequences of poverty and an increase in income are seldom concomitant. Increasing the income of persons in poverty only increases their disbursement of monies, not their buying power. Money promotes self-determination and power only if it is utilized in a manner compatible with the societal ethos. Money spent outside of society's expectations becomes conspicuous and an indication for the financially powerful to take advantage of the situation. Differences in psychological function do not accompany differences in income between comparable groups of poor. For example, there are the "frugal poor" (with bank accounts), the "insurance poor" (with policies paid weekly), the "poor poor" (who own nothing and exist from day to day), the "conspicuous consumer poor" (who are buying knick-knacks and visible items they cannot afford), and the "narcotizing poor" (who spend income on alcohol and drugs). Income is not the factor which determines which ideal type one becomes. While their income remains constant the persons in poverty neighborhoods who are involved in successful social action in their own behalf frequently modify their psychological orientation. Impulsiveness evidently decreases, feelings of helplessness lessen, skills and activities gradually increase and change. An outgrowth of these psychologic changes is often an increase in real income. What is also frequently overlooked is the fact that the acquisition of the psychology of poverty is seldom precipitated by a loss of wealth. Although some forms of immediate personal disorganization and a loss of real income are concomitant, these are usually transitional, and mostly related to loss of status, but do not affect the total value system of individuals.

The American value system supports and perpetuates poverty. Poverty will be with us as long as we believe the right of property has greater importance than the equality of opportunity, dignity, and worth of individuals. Releasing people from poverty will be accomplished through a social revolution which stimulates and permits the social competency model. Poverty's vicious circle must be broken so that families, from generation to generation, will not perpetuate the same type of familial instability and economic insecurity. The social competency model permits persons and families to feel that they have vested within themselves interests, ability, and power to bring about change in their social situation. Lack of motivation and feelings of helplessness are most frequently due to past experiences. Past failures destroy motivation and inhibit the desire to try again. Until the poor can recognize that they are creators of their own destiny and until American society permits them to be creators of their own destiny, the poverty cycle will not be broken.

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THE CULTURAL CHASM

THE CONCEPT OF:	IN MIDDLE-CLASS TERMS STANDS FOR:	BUT TO THE LOWER-CLASS IS:
Authority (courts, police, school principal)	Security to be taken for granted, wooed	Something hated, to be avoided
Education	The road to better things for one's children and oneself	An obstacle course to be surmounted until the children can go to work
Joining a Church	A step necessary for social acceptance	An emotional release
Ideal Goal	Money, property, to be accepted by the successful	"Coolness;" to "make out" without attracting attention of the authorities
Society	The pattern one conforms to in the interests of security and being "popular"	"The Man" an enemy to be resisted and suspected
Delinquency	An evil originating outside the middle-class home	One of life's inevitable events, to be ignored unless the police get into the act.
The Future	A rosy horizon	Non-existent. To live each moment fully
"The Street"	A path for the auto	A meeting place, an escape from a crowded home

THE CONCEPT OF:	IN MIDDLE-CLASS TERMS STANDS FOR:	BUT TO THE LOWER-CLASS IS:
Liquor	Sociability, cocktail parties	A means to welcome oblivion
Violence	The last resort of authorities for protecting the law-abiding	A tool for living and getting on
Sex	An adventure and a binding force for the family-creating problems of birth control	One of life's few free pleasures
Money	A resource to be cautiously spent and saved for the future	Something to be used now before it disappears
Automobile	A means of making out socially	A means of making out sexually

POVERTY as Seen by a Welfare Worker

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Poverty shows many faces to the welfare worker, but I would like to break it down into two main areas for discussion.

First there are the Poor who lack material things but who can manage their own affairs quite adequately if money can be provided either through a job, assistance, or some other source. These are the people who have a background, emotional security, average intelligence, and enough education to function as members of society. An example would be a young mother with a high school education or even less, who has lost her husband; perhaps the Social Security payments may not be adequate to support the family. She may need help to secure additional training, child care, or a job--but she can make her own plans and use the facilities offered.

Then there is the Poverty Group who are emotionally, physically, educationally, culturally deprived and have been for all or most of their lives. These are the people, who I believe, comprise most of the basic education classes. Their background is usually an unstable home, or a broken home; they have never obtained the security and love with which to form an emotional stability. They have probably dropped out of school early because of financial need, inability to attend school regularly, or because they just could not keep up. These people have suffered social, emotional, spiritual, and financial deprivations for a number of years and cannot be changed over night.

Most of them live in the slums, and are from the slums in the rural areas as well as the cities. They live in crowded, inadequate housing with no inside bathroom; water has to be "toted" from a neighbor's house, the heating and cooking equipment is dangerous, and the house is a fire trap. Most of the essentials of living are lacking in these homes. The children eat on the doorstep because there is no table. The children have no privacy because there may be ten people in two rooms, without enough beds for all members of the family. The family never sits down together as a family group. There are no books or magazines, no pictures on the walls, no rugs on the floor. Their income, if any, is so small that they could not use it to change the situation even if they knew how.

This is the group with which the welfare worker is most concerned. Although they would like to do better and live better, life has "beaten them down." Their needs are various and numerous: sufficient money to provide the necessities of life; better housing; education, help with emotional and health problems; encouragement and support to use the resources of the community to better their situation; and many other services. To provide these services, the 1962 Act and other Amendments to the Social Security Act were passed. Some of these programs are now in effect in each state. The programs are new, but it is hoped that services can be developed in each state so that adequate social services can be available to all who need them.

To give a graphic picture of what poverty is, I would like to quote a few passages from a paper given by Jo Goodwin Parker, Christian Social Relations Committee, United Church Women, DeLand, Florida on "What is Poverty?":

> "Poverty is getting up every morning from a dirt-and-illness-stained mattress. The sheets have long since been used for diapers. The children are too young to walk the long, dark way to the privy in the night. They are cold; it is dangerous to keep the fire going at night."
>
> Poverty is being tired. I have always been tired. They told me at the hospital that I had chronic anemia caused from poor diet and that I needed a corrective operation. I listened politely. The poor always listen. They don't say there is no money for iron pills or better food. An operation is frightening and costs so much. Recovery takes a long time. Who will care for my three children if I have to go to the hospital? I have no family to care for them and no money to pay for care."
>
> "Poverty is dirt. Even the cheapest soap has to be saved for the baby's diapers."
>
> "Poverty is looking into a black future. Your children won't play with my boys. They will have to turn to other boys who will steal to get what they want. I can see them behind prison bars."
>
> "You say to me there are schools. Yes, there are schools. My children have no extra books, no magazines, no extra pencils, or crayons, or paper; and most of all, they do not have health. They do not sleep well on the floor or with me in my one bed. They do not suffer from hunger--my $78.00 (maximum AFDC for 3 children) keeps us alive, but I have two children who will already be damaged by the time they get to school.

It is said, "The child is father to the man," and I have tried to give you a picture of the background of many of your pupils. Unless the social worker and the teacher can gain an understanding of the many problems to be overcome by your pupils, in addition to his educational problems, the help you offer cannot be used, and you will feel you have failed. All of the things I have talked about have a bearing on your pupils' ability to attend a school and asimilate knowledge. The will is there, but sometimes the road is filled with pitfalls. Often there is no money for transportation, no clothes to wear, no one to care for the children.

Social work is striving to meet these lacks through adequate assistance. Social welfare programs are still woefully inadequate in all the Southern States, and there is no statewide general assistance--and through other services to help the person get better housing, better education and training, better health and better emotional and family stability. Community resources such as schools, health facilities: medical and psychiatric; churches, employment agencies are of major importance in accomplishing this job. No one agency can do it alone-- it will take the combined resources and understanding of all the community to begin to solve the problem.

In closing, on a brighter note I would like to say that I have been most encouraged about the educational advantages that the welfare program of Florida now has available. I am sure this is true in other states. In the late 30's a poor child or a child who lived in poverty did well if he finished the 8th grade. Now large numbers are completing high school, and many are going on to junior colleges, which are easily accessible over the state. Those who have exceptional ability are going on the complete the four-year college degree.

We talk a great deal about the school "drop-outs"--and we need to work with these children to keep them in a regular school or help them secure the training for a trade. However, there are also those who are taking full advantage of the educational system because the schools, the welfare workers, and the community are working on this problem.

The Anti-Poverty Legislation and all Welfare Legislatation will need the active support and concern of the total community to be effective in meeting the problem of poverty. We need to alleviate the current situation, but we also need to reach down to the causes and prevent the development of situations which cause poverty for future generations.

THE SOCIOLOGY OF EXCLUSION: IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING ADULT ILLITERATES

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Continent's End. Land's End. Jumping off place. The Place of new Beginnings; Turning-Point; Turn-Table.

Say, hey! ...again Civilization follows Commerce... Culture follows trade... Westward...

We're going to build a bridge - road to Mandalay...finish Columbus's chore... ...come full circle...("more than passage to India!"...Walt Whitman...)

...Psycheosmosophically, Orioccidental Psychocosmic Psycholpsychiatrist, or/and Occioriental Psychocosmik Psycholphilosopher, and/or Orioccidental Psychocosmique Psycholwholist, or/and Oxioriental Psychocozmic Psycholsociologist, and/or Orioxiental Psychcosmik Psycheemergentevolutionist, or/and Occioriental Psychcozmique-Psych + Cosmos = Extrametaultrasuprasupperreality - transcendental psychocosmiconsciousness - man. per: Orioxidental Psychkosmik (World's Fair Committee, c/o: The Mayor, City Hall, 94102, San Francisco!!!!!!! California!!!!!!! after all, if Oklahoma! rates one!)

The above letter was written by a patient labeled as schizophrenic. Unless one can understand and perceive this patient's experiences, his message is incoherent. Until teachers of adult illiterates can view the illiterate's world and experiences through his eyes, the educator's teachings will be irrelevant.

CULTURAL EXCLUSIONS[1]

What does it mean to be left-out? Remember for a moment the games of our adolescence. In every gang or group there were always children whom neither side wanted. "He can't hit - who wants him; he always drops the ball; - she can't throw hard enough," etc. If one was fortunate enough not to have been one of these misfits of youthful games, stop for a moment and conjure the feeling that must have been associated with this type of rejection.

Exclusion from peer relations under game conditions is transitory, and based upon one's inadequate performance. Improving one's performance or waiting until human growth and development patterns exclude game proficiency as a prerequisite for peer group inclusion, are institutionalized means of becoming included. Another possible solution is to reject the excluded peer group and join another whose entrance requirements more readily fit the individual's capabilities.

Exclusion without concomitant social and psychological problems is difficult for most persons. Permanent exclusion is based on where one finds oneself in the social structure. Potential for improvement is limited. Exclusion cuts off the institutionalized avenues leading to success. This inhibits learning, accurate perception, attitude formation, and intergrating items of social signigicance to the middle-class, power-holding, community. The "unlearned;" the "unmotivated;" those whose perceptions do not permit an orientation past the here-and-now; those whose attitudes are frequently classed by the dominant society as 'immoral' and those whose socialized behavior does not meet the standards of the majority group - these are the excluded.

To exclude means to shut out. Persons who are barred from participation in the culture represent the excluded. Exclusion implies setting up a barrie effective in keeping out a person or class or persons from what is open and accessible to others.

Most frequently, the excluded are members of national, racial and cultural minorities. These include American Indians, Mexican-Americans, European immigrant categories, American Negroes, Puerto Ricans, and Oriental migrants. Minorities are persons who lack access to community sources of power. Aside from these racial and ethnic minorities is a large category of social minorities; these include the unskilled, the unschooled, the unemployed and the transient. There is much overlapping, because minorities are not mutually exclusive categories. Concomitant with large populations of racial and ethnic minorities are excesses of the unschooled, unskilled and unemployed.

Adult illiterates are members of the large category of social minorities, many of whom have a social, cultural, or racial background compounding the illiteracy problem.

AMERICAN VALUES [2]

Americans, generally, whether they represent the excluded or not, hold in high regard a relatively common set of values. The realization of these values is outside the experience of most excluded persons.

An important pair of American values is achievement and success. Culturally excluded individuals seldom taste success or achievement. Achievement comes in many forms, i.e., education, financial success, occupational advancement, family status, etc. The political, economic, educational and religious systems have inadvertently and purposefully blocked the avenues of achievement and success for most excluded persons.

Another set of values is activity and work. To be occupied at all times is necessary, expected, and demanded. "Idle hands are the devil's playthings." If one is not working then he is loafing. Unskilled and unschooled minorities are more frequently unemployed than employed. Seldom are the culturally excluded in the unemployed position by choice, but by necessity.

Efficiency and practicality are beliefs held by most Americans. The best way to do things is the practical way. Persons who do not economically succeed, or who hide themselves in "ivory towers" aren't "down to earth;" don't have "their feet on the ground," and are not "practical." Members of the lower class desire, as much as anyone else, to be practical and efficient. Although practicality and efficiency may be lacking in terms of middle class Americans functioning, the culturally excluded are practical in terms of their necessities for living.

Progress, freedon, and equality are other aspects of the American value system seldom experienced by the culturally excluded. Access to the sales pitch for material comforts without gaining them frequently stimulates inactivity, lethargy, and retards motivation.

Instructional contacts reinforce these values. Excessive failure and constant frustration while trying to obtain access to these values do not necessarily decrease the values importance, but they significantly stifle motivation.

EXCLUSION, ILLITERATES, AND THE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION

Adult illiterates, an example of the excluded, hold values and have needs no different in kind, but possibly in degree, than other members of the society. These persons have been excluded from most institutional life in the society. Of particular necessity is their inclusion in the educational institution.

Until the adult illiterate gets an adequate educational program, whatever it turns out to be, he will have been through a long process of exclusion from education. Although educators and the educational system may disagree, these persons were unable to conform to the institution as it was, therefore, the institution rejected them. It essentially said, "we don't want him on our team because he can't play well enough." If the illiterate has been unable to conform to the system, then it is now time for the system to conform to the illiterate.

This statement is not meant to assign blame nor to excuse; it only states the need for a dramatic reorientation of institutional methods to fit the needs of all the people it serves. Lip service is no longer sufficient. The well-worn cliche, "meeting individual needs," must now become a dynamic reality.

Possibly our educational institution should take lessons from the economic institution. The need for hula-hoops and new automobiles is created by American advertising industry and the same industry makes it virtually possible for most everyone to own them (even those who are considered at the poverty level).

SOCIO-CULTURAL HISTORY OF ILLITERATES

If the adult illiterate is to be aided, his familial, social, and cultural background must be understood. He generally belongs to a large family, with 5 to 8 siblings. Social control and child rearing are a function of older siblings. Parents are poor and because they are employed or looking for work they provide little or no supervision. In these families parents are poorly educated, use little or no sentence structure, have a small vocabulary, and are non-readers.

The majority of communication in these families is non-verbal, expressive, and explosive. They learn to "read each other" less by what is spoken, but more by motions and gestures (i.e., the way eyebrows are slanted and the forehead is wrinkled, the way one smiles and doesn't smile, the way a hand is raised). Most frequently communication is non-verbal, therefore grunts and groans become important. Expressive means that persons in these families indicate their feelings in a non-verbal or verbal manner, but emotionality is more signigicant. By explosive it is meant that communication will usually be erratic, from the navel and not highly intellectualized, socially appropriate (by middle-class standards) response.

These parents and middle-class mothers and fathers have the same aspirations for their children. Lethargy develops, due to exclusion and multiple failures, as a personality syndrome which is passed from generation to generation. Each generation tries to succeed - cannot, and more lethargy sets in.

Forced independence at an early age is also characteristic. In order to survive in this type of family one must become independent; one must be able to stand on his feet in order to fight the world or passively exist. In this family, children are taught, and expected to be, physically aggressive.

The culturally excluded family, similar to other families, selects for transmission to the child only those items in the environment which it feels are necessary for survival. It interprets and evaluates what is transmitted. Values of right and wrong, and good and bad are established at this time.

In terms of his cultural background, uneducated and unschooled persons desire many middle-class goals, but lack the institutionalized means for obtaining them. If one lives in a given culture he assumes the needs and desires of the culture. The society also provides institutionalized methods for obtaining goals. For example, when one wants to become successful and achieve, one institutionalized method is education. However, in culturaly excluded families, education is not reinforced from day to day. Since parents have had little or no experience or contact with formal educational institutions they have had no access to institutionalized means of obtaining an education. Education is desireable to the degree that these parents verbalize, "I'd like my son to go to school and become a doctor." But mon and dad do not have available to them the psychological supports or knowledge of the avenues by which the educational maze is successfully conquered. Verbal desires for education are present, but the necessary emotional and intellectual superstructure are insufficient. Therefore, if one wants to become a success in the lower-class community (and education is a method, but unavailable) one chooses a non-institutionalized means of obtaining it. This may be the numbers racket, or some other marginal or criminal activity.

Present orientation is the cultural background of the excluded. They live for today and not tomorrow. It is the middle-class persons who live for tomorrow. Thirty to forty-year mortgages are significant indications of middle-class future orientation. Renting on a weekly basis exemplifies the present orientation of the lower-class.

Cultural conflicts are created by differences between middle and lower-class values. Successful, adaptative ways of behaving in the ghetto are functional for survival. These are frequently in conflict with middle-class behavior and beliefs. For example, if the only way a 14 year-old female can maintain male friendship is through having sexual relations, then she will participate in that type of behavior. This behavior, according to the middle-class culture, is immoral and wrong, but for these persons it is a successfully adaptive mechanism for personality intergration and group identification.

PERSONALITY TRAITS AND THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

As a result of being reared in a family, culture and society of this type, a modal set of behaviors is identifiable. Adult illiterates manifest, to a relatively high degree, a number of personality traits resulting from growth and development outside of middle-class practices.

One of these is inseculity. Adult illiterates frequently display insecurity by boisterous and acting-out behavior and an unwillingness to admit when they are wrong. When one is insecure, cognitive behavior is retarded because defensiveness and behavior justification become important. Another characteristic is physical aggression. When one perceives his behavior as too inadequate to join the educational team, then he joins the other side, the physically aggressive. These persons also recognize their lack of status; they have little education and money, poor occupations, and inadequate social positions.

Reticence is another major characteristic of adult illiterates. There is difficulty in speaking out, regarding ones own needs, except on occasion and in an explosive, erratic, and self-destructive manner. A frequent verbalized attitude concerning their plight is, "Well, you know, this is life," or "this is the way it is." These are frequent responses when interviewing lower-class persons. Reticence becomes exaggerated when educational and occupational exclusion is compounded by minority, racial, or ethnic identification.

When interviewing lower-class Negro males in Baltimore,[4] a question always asked was, "Have you had racial difficulties in Baltimore?" (Any Negro who has lived in Baltimore, a culturally southern, border city, knows it has been and still is impossible to live there without contacting some racial conflict.) A characteristic response to this question was, "No, it never happens to me, --I never have any trouble that way." A frequent response to the question, "Have you ever had any trouble with white people?" was, "Oh no, white people are nice people." When asked, "Well, have you ever been on a bus and had someone nudge you and say, "get over there, black man?", the most characteristic answer was, "Oh yes, I've had that happen, but I don't pay that no mind." This complete reticence to speak out for one's personal identity and self-respect and a denial of psychological and social conflict has been a functional and a necessary survival mechanism for lower-class culturally excluded persons.

A fourth personality characteristic is resignation or what appears to be lethargy or lack of motivation. Culturally excluded persons are frequently resigned to their stations in life. They feel it is impossible to be mobile, therefore why bother to try. Feeling exploited is also experienced. They smile while being taken for a sucker. Yet, under their breath anger, hostility and aggression are subdued.[5] A young Negro stated during an interview, "I like your people, I worked for them." When I asked "who are my people?", he responded, "Jews, of course." In the lowerclass Negro ghetto of Baltimore, neighborhood stores, apartments, flats and rooms are owned by middle-class Jewish people. Lower-class Negroes during interviews frequently displayed unleashed anger, resentment, and hostility toward the Jewish entrepeneur who, they believed, was exploiting them.[6] Conversations among lower-class persons reveal anger due to exploitation of this nature, but to acknowledge these feelings to the middle-class world is difficult.

These persons know they are being exploited. For example, in Baltimore one can rent a lovely hovel for $17 to $27 a week. Such a three-room flat has one cold water faucet, a non-functioning toilet filled with excrement, obnoxious odors and rats, cockroaches and other vermian who have freedom of the premises. Since many of the families who live in these conditions are on welfare roles, they see the welfare system agreeing to keep hovels of this nature in existence. Diffuse and unexpressed anger is seldom overtly or consciously directed at the entrepreneur and welfare exploiting system. Escape from these conditions is impossible due to lack of information, finances, education, and stability.

A seventh major personality characteristic is extreme sensitivity to the non-verbal cues of those in power. In order to survive, culturally excluded persons have had to depend more upon how a person appears, rather than what he says. It has become functional to filter out what is said and judge a man on his actions. School teachers, due to their middle-class heritage, lack of lower-class intereaction and understanding, demand for support of the status quo, and denial of lower class culture, frequently relate one message verbally while simultaneously non-verbally communicating the opposite. The non-verbal message is received loud and clear while the verbal resounds only to the speaker. Since response is to non-verbal cues, behavior frequently does not comply to middle-class standards and suggestions.

The small child, from a lower-class hovel, who comes into the classroom with an odor of urine and feces will receive a non-verbal cue from the teacher. This is frequently a turned-up nose, frown or "augh." Such a message creates a feeling not easily compensated by the teacher's health lesson explaining the proper use of soap and water. Its use and necessity are as foreign to this young man as the stench is to this young woman who is teaching.

Alienation of the culturally excluded by teachers can be easy, unconscious, and frequently non-verbal. Interestingly enough, middle-class persons are seldom as sensitive to non-verbal cues. They are less important as indicators of feelings and behavior. Non-verbal cues are distributed by middle-class persons without realizing their importance to lower-class persons who better understand gestures than words.

Another major personality trait of the lower classes is concrete rather than abstract thinking. If educational progress is to be made with adult illiterates, concrete objects and situations must be dealt with (problems of importance to him), not abstractions. The more abstract the educational process the further from reality and comprehension it becomes for these persons.

SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING ILLITERATES

What can be done to direct or remotivate the culturally excluded adult illiterate? Education must extend itself to the illiterate and not as in the past, communicate the message that education is available to all who desire it and are willing to conform to its rigid standards. In order to educate the unschooled adult, educational institutions must be responsible for the total person, not only the formal learning segment of his life. Until now, each institution has declared responsibility for only its segment of the functioning organism. If success is to come where others have failed, then exceptional innovations must develop. To successfully educate the adult illiterate it may mean extending services past the educational institutuion's bailiwick by working with the family, caring for his physical health, dealing with his neurotic and social needs. This may mean putting aside the three r's while an acute problem of dispossession or death is worked through. This task is possible only if teachers and institutions develop adaptive and innovative techniques.

Some understandings necessary to reverse the process of illiteracy or at least redirect it, can be outlines. First, there needs to be an acceptance of the illiterate for who he is and not for what he can or cannot do. All people have this need, but acceptance is needed more by the excluded than the rest of society's members. They have seldom experienced acceptance. Being turned down on the basis of what one cannot do is a common experience for the excluded. Acceptance by the middle-class world and respect for the lower-class person's individuality are necessary. This is difficult for most middle-class persons because their non-verbal cues of rejection over-ride their verbal acceptance. "Iaccept you, tell me your difficulty" is stated, but non-verbal signals of rejection are interpreted.

Secondly, acceptance and respect for existing behavior are necessary. This needs to be recognized as behavior usually learned from significant persons in their lives. If an individual is Methodist and someone mentions that he "shouldn't be a Methodist, but a Catholic," he would probably reject the idea vehemently. His response may be, "My mother was a Methodist and my father was a Methodist and my family before them were Methodists, therefore, you are not going to make me a Catholic." Frequently representatives of middle-class culture (police, teacher, social worker, psychiatrist, etc.) indicate to lower-class persons that a piece of behavior which they have learned from significant persons in their lives is wrong, maladaptive, and should be changed, rather than help them find alternative behaviors not contrary to what they have known, cherished, and believed in.

Third, the tendency to think is terms of right and wrong, black and white, good and bad should be moderated. Offering as many alternative solutions as possible to a problem will aid persons to understand that alternatives are necessary and important aspects for solving difficulties.

Social welfare programs have not done this. If there is a problem, too frequently institutionalized solutions are offered. There is either a right or wrong solution based on the middle-class morals and the logic of the institution. What is necessary, is that these persons be allowed and aided to find their own solutions to problems while learning the process of solution finding. This process is learned by being offered alternatives rather than be being told one "correct" answer. In other words, the solution most adaptable and functional in a given situation should be sought.

A fourth need in working with adult illiterates is to bring the family, whenever possible, into the educational process. To leave one's home and go to an educational institution at the age of 30, is more traumatic than for the child at the age of six. Family involvement creates psychological suppot for educational continuance. An interest in education by other family members provides support for the neophyte. A suggestion of this type may mean innovations in where shool is taught. Public school classrooms may not be best for the teaching adult illiterates. Other physical facilities such as a home, church. settlement house or neighborhood house established for this purpose may be more conducive to learning. The more subcultural, psychological, and familial supports, the greater the opportunity of the educational process succeeding.

All problems must be heard and explored. For example, if English grammar is the subject, and someone raises a question not related to English grammar, there is no reason why the question cannot take precedence. It need not be said, as has frequently been exclaimed in elementary and junior high school, "Don't interrupt the lesson." Satisfying a need at the time it occurs is necessary in order to establish a relationship and milieu for adequate and accurate learning. This involves working with problems that may be in no way related to the formal program, at least in terms of the course outlined.

Another aspect is the teaching process that needs to be strengthened is developing human relationships. Relationships can be on a one-to-one basis or one to thirty. It is not impossible. If a secure, comfortable, trusting relationship exists, skills become of interest and automatic for the learner. People then create a desire to learn. They are there to satisfy internalized feelings first, while grades, a some-what ficticious representation of learned skills, are secondary. If financial remuneration enhances the desire to learn then this too should be utilized.

It must also be remembered that the culturally excluded are frequently a negative reference group for the power-holding majority. Excluded persons are necessary for the maintenance of the status of many members of the dominant group. Although this is frequently denied by majority group members, it is consciously known and subconsciously felt by the excluded. Teachers, as representatives of middle-class

America and its educational institutions, are in a vulnerable position, in that they have a high potential for further alienating the excluded. This also has implications for inner-city teachers, of culturally excluded youngsters, in the regular program. Unless the formalized social barriers of education are destroyed or worked through by providing opportunities for the excluded to taste the success of the included, then education of the illiterate will achieve little.

To say the task that lies ahead is difficult, is an understatement, but the fruits of success can establish a meaningful reciprocal relationship between the educationally excluded and society's middle-class representatives.

FOOTNOTES

1. The term cultural exclusion developed out of a series of seminars with E.B. Brody, M.D. and Carl Schleifer, M.D. at the Psychiatric Institute, School of Medicine, University of Maryland. This concept was first presented by Dr. Brody at the Bertran Roberts Lectureship, Department of Psychiatry, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut, February, 1965.

2. For an elaborate discussion of these and other American values see Robin Williams, American Society. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1960, pp. 415-470.

3. Robert K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure. Glencoe: The Free Press, 1963. Chapter IV, "Social Structure and Anomie," pp.131-160.

4. R. L. Derbyshire, E.B. Brody and Carl Schleifer. "The Family Structure of Young Adult Negro Male Mental Patients: Preliminary Observations from Urban Baltimore, etc." Jounal of Nervous and Mental Disease, Vol. 136, No. 3, March 1963, pp. 245-251.

5. The Los Angeles revolt of August 1965 is an example of collective action in response to the socio-cultural history of subjugation. Anger, hostility and aggression finally broke through the long psychological history of resignation.

6. E.B. Brody and R.L. Derbyshire, "Prejudice in American Negro College Students, "Archives of General Psychiatry, Vol. 4, December, 1963, pp. 109-118.

ADULT LEARNING

Learning Theory and Adult Education

One of the fundamental objectives of Adult Education is the development of the people themselves to the end that they, through their own initiative may effectively identify and solve the various problems they face. If educators are to provide the channel for self-actualization, they must know how to recognize them when they occur.

Theories of Learning

Learning theorists have attempted to formulate concepts about how people acquire knowledge, skill, and attitudes. Each school has attacked the problem from a different point of view. Learning theories help organize existing knowledge and generate new knowledge through stimulation of research.

The generally accepted theories of learning have been developed within three broad schools of psychology referred to as Connectionism, Gestaltism, and Functionalism. Through generations of research by-potheses, these theories have been considerably responsible for the establishment of several learning principles which have implications for the adult educator.

Principles of Learning*

1. Behaviors which are reinforced are more likely to recur.

2. Reinforcement to be effective in learning should follow almost immediately after the desired behavior and be closely connected with it in the mind of the learner. A total mark on a test the day after it is administered has little or no reinforcement value for the specific answers.

3. Practice alone is not adequate. The learner cannot improve by repeated efforts unless he is informed whether or not each effort has been successful.

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*Adapted from Goodwin Watson, "What Do We Know About Learning?" Revolution in Teaching: New Theory, Technology, and Curricula, ed. Alfred de Grazia and David A. Sohn (New York: Bantam Books, 1964), p.82-7.

4. Threat-and-punishment are not, psychologically, the reverse of reward. It disturbs the relationship of the learner to the situation and the teacher. It may make the punished response more likely or less likely to recur; it may set up avoidance tendencies which prevent further learning. It does not assist the learner in finding and fixing correct responses.

5. Readiness facilitates learning. It has been referred to as a complex product of interaction among such factors as, a) sufficient physiological and psychological maturity, b) sense of the importance of the new learning for the learner is his world, c) mastery of prerequisites providing a fair chance of success, and d) freedom from discouragement (expectation of failure), or threat (sense of danger).

6. The sense of satisfaction which results from achievement is the type of reinforcement which has the greatest transfer value to other life situations. Extrinsic reward (commendation) depends on its dispenser. There is no need to strive if the reward-giver is out of the picture. Also, cheating can sometimes win the extrinsic reward. The internal reward system is always present for the learner, and he sees little gain in fooling himself.

7. Learners progress in an area of learning only as far as they need to in order to achieve their purpose. With increased motivation (new demands and opportunities), they will improve. The most effective effort may be put forth when tasks are neither too easy nor too hard--where success is quite possible, but not certain.

8. Genuine participation (not pretended sharing) increases motivation, adaptablility, and speed of learning. Excessive direction by the teacher is likely to result in apathetic conformity, defiance, scapegoating, or escape from the whole affair.

9. Tolerance for failure is best taught through providing a backlog of success. Adults who experience too much frustration cease to be integrative, purposeful, and rational in their behavior. The thresh-old of what is "too much" varies; it is lowered by previous failure.

10. The best way to help individuals form a general concept is to present the concept in numerous and varied specific situations.

11. Recall shortly after learning reduces the amount of forgetting. Spaced or distributed practice facilitates retention.

12. People remember new information which confirms their previous attitudes better than they remember new information which runs counter to their previous attitudes.

13. What is learned is most likely to be available for use if it is learned in a situation much like that in which it is to be used and immediately preceding the time when it is needed. Much that is now taught children might be more effective if taught to responsible adults.

14. Information concerning progress toward a learning goal (which desirably has been determined by the individual) facilitates learning.

Implications for Adult Education

1. Learning should be problem-centered. The problem should be a problem for the learner, not a problem of the teacher. When the learner sees a real problem he is motivated to seek some kind of solution. The teacher's obligation is to provide situations in which the learner sees a broad range of problems from which he may select.

2. Learning should be experience-centered. The teacher should be knowledgeable of the learner's backlog of experience, insights, sets, etc., so that they may be used to facilitate rather than hinder new learning. In addition, activities and experiences in the classroom should be directly related to real problems of the learner.

3. Experience should be meaningful to the learner. The experience that bears upon the problem must be suited to the learner's capacity to perceive, his age, his interests, his readiness, and his capacity to understand. A shared responsibility of the learner and teacher is to create a climate in which the learner can see meanings. These meanings do not come passively to a non-participative learner.

4. The learner must be free to look at the experience. The climate is an important factor in effective learning. This climate is described as pleasurable, permissive, supportive, accepting, free, spontaneous, reality-centered or person-centered. The learner who is emotionally and psychologically free to look at experience is ready to start on the process of acquiring the necessary behavior with which to learn and to grow. For learning to proceed creatively and optimally, the learner must be adjusted emotionally to the learning situation, the teacher, the fellow students, and to the classroom climate.

5. The goals must be set and the search organized by the learner. It is important that the goals of the broad learning quest be set by the learner. The learner must be free to make errors, to explore alternative solutions to problems, and to participate in decisions about the organization of his learning environment. For maximum learning the learner must interact with other learners in such a was as to expose his attitudes and gaps in knowledge and skills to himself and to others. His attempts at solution should be a series of tries, which become increasingly effective as he gets feedback on each try and modifies subsequent explorations.

6. The learner must have feedback about progress toward goals. Evaluation of progress toward goals, particularly when goals have been set by the learner, is highly important. Some indication of success or failure, some frame of reference for determining adequacy of problem solution, some corroboration that the alley is not blind, some reality factor with which to assess one's achievement against one's level of aspiration or some knowledge of success or failure is necessary in the functional feedback process.

PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING DESIGNED TO EFFECT BEHAVIORAL CHANGE

Principles for Facilitating the Learning of Facts

1. Organize Factual Material Into Appropriate Learning Units
2. Secure the Correct Response on the First Try
3. Reinforce Correct Responses and Overcome Errors Immediately
4. Practice Until Facts are Firmly Established
5. Aid the Learner to Evaluate His Responses

Principles for Facilitating the Learning of Concepts

1. Organize the Concepts into Appropriate Learning Units
2. Encourage and Guide Searching Behavior
3. Organize Realistic Experiences with the Concept
4. Give Concise, Clear Meanings of the Concept
5. Provide for Applications and Use of the Concept
6. Aid the Learners to Evaluate the Adequacy of Their Concepts

Principles for Improving Problem-Solving Abilities

1. Activate Solvable Problems in the Learning Situation
2. Assist the Learner to State and Delimit the Problem
3. Assist the Learner in Finding Needed Information and Methods
4. Aid the Learner in Interpreting and Analyzing Information and Methods.
5. Provide Opportunities for Stating and Testing Hypotheses
6. Encourage Independent Discovery and Evaluation

Principles for Encouraging Creativity

1. Encourage Original Expressions in Many Media
2. Foster Flexibility Rather than Dependent Conformity
3. Allow Time for Creativity to Unfold
4. Encourage Productivity

Principles for Improving Skill Learning

1. Analyze the Skill Prior to Attempting to Guide the Learner
2. Demonstrate the Correct Response
3. Guide Initial Responses Verbally and if Necessary, Physically
4. Provide for Appropriate Practice Tasks

5. Distribute Rather Than Mass the Practice
6. Provide Knowledge of Results and Correct Inadequate Responses
7. Aid the Learner to Evaluate His Responses

Principles for Facilitating the Learning of Attitudes

1. Identify the attitudes to be Acquired
2. Clarify the Meanings of the Attitudes
3. Extend Informative Experiences About the Attitudes
4. Provide Identifying Figures for the Learners
5. Provide for Pleasant Emotional Experiences
6. Arrange Appropriate Situational Contexts for Practice and Confirmation
7. Cultivate Desired Attitudes Deliberately

Principles for Encouraging Personality Integration

1. Be the Person You Are
2. Develop an Emotionally Secure Environment
3. Encourage Self-Understanding and Self-Acceptance in the Pupils
4. Aid the Pupil to Set and Attain Realistic Goals
5. Provide Practice in Rational Methods for Meeting Conflict Situations

Principles of Motivation

1. Focus Pupil Attention Toward Desired Learning Outcomes
2. Utilize Curiosity and Encourage its Development
3. Utilize Already Acquired Interests and Develop Others
4. Provide Concrete and Symbolic Incentives if Necessary
5. Arrange Learning Tasks Appropriate to the Ability of the Learner
6. Provide For Realistic Goal Setting
7. Aid the Learners in Making and Evaluating Progress Toward Goals
8. Recognize that Too-High Tension Produces Disorganization and Inefficiency

Principles for Encouraging Retention

1. Foster Intent to Learn Well and to Remember
2. Provide for Satisfying Consequences of Original Learning
3. Distribute Practice and Review
4. Provide for Sequential, Cumulative Learning

Principles for Facilitating Transfer

1. Emphasize Learning Outcomes that Readily Transfer
2. Develop Meaningful Generalizations
3. Assist the Learner to Make Applications
4. Evaluate the Learner's Ability to Apply Responses to New Situations

FACTORS IN ADULT LEARNING

Learning Theory and Classroom Practice
In Adult Education

I. The main constructs of learning theory

  1. Stimulus-Response theories
     a) Specific response connected to stimulus.
     b) Rote memorization, drill, flash cards.

  2. Configurationist theories.
     a) Perceived relationships and patterning of stimuli.
     b) Learning by parts and whole.

  3. Discrimination learning
     a) Favorable vs. unfavorable material.
     b) Stimulus choices determined by needs.
     c) Interaction of cognitive and emotional processes.

  4. Concept formation and problem solving.
     a) Dynamic model of personality.
     b) Inter-relationship of past, present, and future.
     c) Emphasis on social systems in action, interaction of group and individual values.

II. Difficulties in theory building in adult learning.

  1. Source of data--predominantly obtained from pre-adult classroom situations and animal experiments.

  2. Conditions of adult learning that differentiate in degree, if not in kind, adult learning from pre-adult learning situations.
     a) Most significant problems of adults do not have correct answers in an ultimately verifiable sense.
     b) Solutions are stereotyped as correct because they are institutional rather than rational.
     c) Solutions made by adults have significant effects on other individuals.
     d) Solutions involve emotional commitments as well as assessment of objective factors.
     e) Adults are often deeply committed to a specific point-of-view concerning significant issues.

III. Concepts underlying learning theory, useful as guideposts in developing adult learning situations.

1. Learning depends on motivation.
    a) Resistance to change, need for achievement, goal-setting behavior.

2. Learning depends on capacity.
    a) Individual differences in ability, interest, needs, experiences, etc.

3. Learning depends on previous experience.
    a) Proactive interference and facilitation.
    b) Effects of past experience on perception and hypothesis formation.
    c) Judgmental categories.

4. Learning depends on perceiving relevant relationships.
    a) Patterning of parts into wholes.
    b) Belongingness.
    c) Relevant and irrelevant stimuli in perceptual field.

5. Learning depends on active search for meaning.
    a) Trial-and-error, problem-solving behavior.
    b) Learner makes best try he can at the time.

6. Learning depends on feedback.
    a) Evaluation for guidance and motivation

7. Learning depends on satisfactory personal and social adjustment in the learning situation.
    a) Group problems and goals need to be clearly identified and understood by all members.
    b) Adults must feel free to search and fumble without fear of institutional or interpersonal threat.
    c) Everyone should be involved in the problem-solving activity so that the greatest number of hypotheses and experiences can be shared by the greatest number.
    d) In this situation the instructor or leader may perform as consultant, resource person, demonstrator, diagnostician, task master, and evaluator.

THE ABE CURRICULUM - AN EXPANDED APPROACH TO LIFE

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Today we want to focus on the curriculum of an Adult Basic Education Program. We have heard much about ABE, particularly since the passage of the Economic Opportunity Act. Today we will try to explain what we try to do in Adult Basic Education, and we would like to relate this ABE work to the society that we live in.

In England and Denmark and well before the United States was developed, in the years from 1400 to 1600, Adult Basic Education was well known. Yet in those times the concept of the curriculum in Adult Basic Education was never considered because the authorities of the church who sponsored ABE wanted their parishioners to learn to read the Bible and only to this level of skill. So the entire curriculum of ABE was centered around the works of the Bible. As the ABE students learned to read the Bible, they solved their own curriculum problem.

When the United States became the "Land of Promise" for the tidal wave of European immigrants in the 1840's-50's, a large number of Adult Education schools developed on the East Coast. Some of you may remember "Luigi" who began his radio program with a letter which read, "Dear Mama Mary, My night school teacher..." (Luigi, you remember, was an immigrant Italian, newly arrived in this country, who attended classes at night to learn English and to acquire American citizenship skills.) Luigi was learning to transfer his speech to English from his native Italian, but he was also beginning to learn to do a little figuring, because he could no longer work and be productive without knowing how to do some figuring. At this time, in the early 1900's, the curriculum of Adult Basic Education again was learning to read and learning enough mathematics so that the student could be able to get a job as a clerk or as a common laborer digging ditches. With these he could survive in a new, often frustrating economic environment.

Now in the period prior to World War I, a very dramatic ABE program was begun in the Kentucky hills. This movement has been dramatically described in a book entitled "Moonlight Schools," by Cora Stewart. In her book she tells the story of an illiteracy movement that swept the hills of Kentucky, now called the Appalachian Mountains, from September, 1911, through the first World War and 1919. In her unique pioneer effort she developed the philosophy that said, in effect: "We'll teach you to read and write; then you find somebody else, and you teach them to read and write." Her program met with great success. On the first night that her schools were opened--called Moonlight Schools because they were open only at night--instead of the 50 to 60 students they anticipated, more than 1200 showed up! Yet in the Moonlight Schools, the curriculum of Adult Basic Education remained that of teaching a person to read the Bible, and to read a daily newspaper, and to teach him just enough so that he could be a good citizen. Some mathematics were still included in the curriculum of Adult Basic Education because teachers felt you might want to add up your change at the store, or you might have some need for "figuring."

Following World War II, a man named Frank Laubach did some work in the United States, in Mexico, and throughout the world. His book called "Each One Teach One," followed the thought that if students were taught to read and write, then they should teach someone else in turn. Laubach's illiteracy campaigns, based on special coded pictograph charts in which familiar objects took the shape of alphabet letters, were widely used and highly successful in countries with widespread illiteracy.

These were tremendous movements. Their curriculums served the country well because these courses produced students who could function technically as good citizens. Today, however, with the passage of the Economic Opportunity Act, the demands for certain specified curriculum standards are intensified because the bill specifies that the student must be taught the skills that will make him an effective, economic unit, and an effective citizen.

Now, I'm not going into those skills at this point, but if you will bear with me for just a moment, I'd like to develop just a little of the political and economic forces that gave rise to this concept of the curriculum. Back in the years of the Great Depression, to some large degree, each neighborhood, or each church, or each group would take care of its own charity or near-charity cases. There was never any thought that government should be concerned about the welfare of the individual citizen. About this time, however, there came forth the concept and the practice of governmental assistance in the welfare of its citizens: WPA, CCC, NRA; the "Period of the Initials." These "Initial" movements began to take place as the government became increasingly concerned about the individual citizen and about his welfare.

Following World War II, we encounter tremendous technological changes: Atomic Power, Rocket Power, Jet Power. This technological force and change ran head-on into the political concept that the government should be responsible for the welfare of each individual. When these ideas collided, the need for the Economic Opportunity Act arose also, as did the idea of a broader curriculum in Adult Basic Education. In the light of the Economic Opportunity Act, the curriculum of Adult Basic Education is all-encompassing. Now, ABE must do a great deal more for the student. The ABE program must put him in a process of education, not with an 8th-grade education, not with a 12th-grade education, not with a college education, but that education necessary to help the student become an effective citizen, both socially and economically. Now, I keep using those two words, and I'm going to end on this point; that there must be a social unit. The student is not going to be much good as an economic unit, if he can't function effectively within his range of society. He won't be an effective economic unit if he can't make a living, someway, somehow.

Now, Dr. Hand, what I'd like to ask you to do, if you would: within this 1966 society and within this context of need, could you develop for us some of the roles and tasks that the 1966 ABE curriculum must do for the student to prepare him as a citizen, to prepare him to make a living, and to prepare him to become an effective social unit?

CURRICULUM AND TEACHING IN ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

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First of all, let me say that what we do in Adult Basic Education is, or should be, vastly different from what we do in Basic Education for children. While Dr. Ulmer was speaking, I was thinking of a statement that Roy Minnis made during an Adult Basic Education Teacher-Trainer Institute we held last fall here on the campus, and I'd like to start by quoting from Roy Minnis' statement regarding this point. He was speaking on the subject, "What is Adult Basic Education?" He said, "I'm convinced that elementary education for adults is neither done in the same way nor utilizes the same content as elementary education for children. It differs also from Adult Basic Education for the school drop-outs who are young." A little later on in his presentation, he said this, "I'm convinced too, that the subject matter for ABE is not the discipline approach of History, for instance, or Sequential Mathematics, Literature, or Language Arts. Such approaches are too abstract. They're not real to the persons who do not yet understand or accept the concept of deferred gratification from education" I think what Dr. Minnis said in these two statements supports greatly what Curtis Ulmer was saying a few minutes ago; namely, that Adult Basic Education must be different if it accomplishes its purpose. I would go so far as to say that in ABE we must turn the whole cart around; we must start with the everyday problems and concerns which the mature adult brings into the learning situation, and in the process of utilizing carefully selected content materials having to do with these problems, teach the academic skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic. This can be done, you know.

The adult comes into Adult Basic Education with concerns which are so real, so important, and so troublesome to him, that if we start by requiring all of his time to be spent in learning only the communication skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic, we will frustrate him worse than he was before he came. On the other hand, if we turn this cart around and start at the very beginning to deal with the real life problems which he brings to the classroom situation, put these in a learning context, select our content and instructional materials with these in mind, and then teach the academic skills he needs in order for him to understand and to make further explorations and studies on these problems. If we do this, we will, I think, capture and hold his attention, and be of much greater help to him.

The law which makes financial support available for Adult Basic Education says that we shall try and do for the under-educated adult that which will make him an effective citizen and a more productive worker, better able to get and hold a job. I therefore think of the curriculum of ABE as being very functional--composed of content and processes which will develop the whole person, the under-educated adult, to the point where he can function effectively in the various roles which he occupies as an adult. Let us examine some of these roles, particularly those which are shared in common by all adults. In doing so, I think we can bring the curriculum for ABE into better focus. (Curtis, would you clear that blackboard for me; I'm enough of a school-teacher that I'm going to have to do a little writing.) First, let us draw a big circle in the center of this blackboard. Now, let's remember that every adult occupies certain roles and has certain responsibilities, or concerns, which differ from those of children. It is out of these roles which the adult inevitably occupies that grow the problems and the concerns he brings to the learning situation. In identifying these roles and examining their true dimensions, we will be identifying our teaching tasks in ABE; that is, if we are to accomplish our mission.

We know that every adult is a parent, or he's a member of a family unit. So we will draw one piece of this circular (curriculum) pie, and label it "Parent," or family life education. Most adults in ABE bring with them problems or concerns growing out of the responsibilities of parenthood. And if, in Adult Basic Education we are to deal effectively with real life needs of our students, we shall have to be sensitive to, look for, and plan our teaching tasks to include the kinds of information, knowledge, and understandings that will help adults deal with the problems of parenthood and family living.

We could, I am sure, brain-storm these problems and come up with a list of 30 or 40 different kinds of problems that an under-educated adult might bring to a classroom situation resulting from his or her being a parent. These would cover a broad range of topics, from knowing how to prepare balanced meals to how to help the daughter with dating problems, and the whole broad spectrum of problems that parents face, particularly the under-educated parents.

Now, the second piece of this curriculum pie represents the life role of the adult as a citizen. Our ABE student is a citizen, as you and I are citizens, and as a citizen he has certain rights, and with these rights, he has certain responsibilities, certain problems. It is a function of ABE to try and assist him to be more effective in this role--both in understanding his responsibilities as a citizen in our kind of society, as well as in acquainting him with the rights he enjoys under our form of government. He may have problems in terms of his ability to participate effectively as a citizen in the community, or in determining how best he can make a contribution to his community in the role of a participating citizen. So in this area, too, there are many useful and functional teaching tasks that we can and should be concerned about in Adult Basic Education.

Thirdly, every adult is a worker, or wants to be one, and as a worker he has certain needs and certain problems which education can serve. In ABE, we can provide him with many kinds of help. Not only in acquainting him with the nature of various occupations in which he may be capable of performing successfully, but also the simple procedures of how to apply for a job, and perform successfully at the entry level in this job. And in this process of filling out job applications, we can teach a lot of reading and writing as well as the nature and requirements of the job. When I said we need to turn the cart around, this is what I meant. Teach your reading, teach your word recognition and other skills in the process of dealing with the problems the adult has. For the housewife who comes to ABE, teach her reading and writing as you teach her what constitutes a balanced meal and how to prepare a balanced meal. Instead of trying to teach the skills of reading and writing in abstraction, start with her everyday problems and teach the skills of communication in the process of dealing with these problems. This is how ABE has to be different. It has to be functional in its orientation.

Fourth, every adult is a consumer. He's a consumer of goods, a consumer of services, even a consumer of music and literature. And as a consumer, one of his chief concerns is that of stretching his limited income, making every dollar go as far as possible. In ABE, we can teach a lot of reading, writing, and arithmetic if we start teaching these in the context of how to buy intelligently in the marketplace... how to stretch the family dollar a little farther. We can teach these mothers and fathers how to prepare a family budget and make more intelligent use of their money...how to look for and read the advertising of special bargains in the newspapers, the weekly supermarket specials, and how to plan their purchases before they go to the store. We can teach a lot of reading and a lot of arithmetic in the process of teaching how to buy more efficiently and to do many simple tasks around the home for which they might otherwise pay someone else to do.

Fifth, every ABE student is an individual personality concerned with his own personal improvement and development. So I think another piece of that ABE pie would be that of personal development. It is a human characteristic to want to improve one's self--to be a better person--to be recognized and respected. This inherent desire for self-improvement, or self-fulfillment, is a strong motivation for learning--for education. We should make use of it in ABE. We should seek to find out the personal aspirations of our ABE students, and encourage them in the systematic development of those skills or personal qualities to which they aspire and which will make them better people.

I've long had a personal "yen" to play the electric guitar. Somehow, I've never found time to learn to do it. But I firmly believe that the personal joy and self-satisfaction I could get from doing this well would make me a better person. I fully intend to learn it someday.

What I am saying is that in ABE we can help people become better people by identifying and helping them become involved in learning activities which are satisfying and appealing to them, and which will serve to improve them as individual people. We know that people are inclined to strive for higher levels of personal fulfillment, and personal recognition. Robert Browning said, "A man's reach should exceed his grasp, or what's a heaven for?" In Adult Basic Education, if we can discover in our students those interests which they have in this direction, and guide and encourage them in the development of these, we can help them become happier, better adjusted, and more responsible individuals.

Sixth, every individual is a user of leisure time. During my lifetime, the life expectancy of man at birth in the United States has increased by thirty-three years. The normal work week during this period has dropped from about sixty hours to forty hours, and now we are talking about the thirty-hour work week. With longevity increasing, retirement ages getting lower, and the work week getting shorter, it is obvious that people will have more non-working time on their hands. This is a serious challenge for education at all levels; it is a challenge for education on the Adult Basic Level. We must provide the kinds of experience, and encourage the kinds of new and worthwhile interests among our participants which will minimize the amount of time they spend in the beer parlors and pool halls, and increase the amount of time that they spend in personal, home, and community improvement activities. We must help our ABE students to discover and develop those interests which are enjoyable to them, helpful to their families, and beneficial to the community. This will make them better people and create better communities. And this can be done in ABE. In Florida, we've seen classes in ABE sponsor and conduct projects in the community which brought favorable attention to them as individuals, and as a group, and resulted in significant community improvements. I refer to neighborhood "clean-up, fix-up, paint-up" projects. One group got a community recreational park, including a swimming pool, built and equipped. And each of them learned, as well as contributed a lot in the process. Individually they learned how to participate more effectively in citizenship roles, how to perform useful work tasks, how to work cooperatively in concert with others; and as a group they accomplished something which made their community a better place in which to live.

Now let me reiterate that undergirding all of these curricular efforts is this need for improving the communication skills of our ABE students. But I'm convinced, as I've said before, that if ABE is to achieve the task of eliminating adult illiteracy and developing the mass of under-educated adults in this country to the level of effective participation as workers, as citizens, as parents, as consumers of leisure time, and so on, we must teach differently than we have normally done. We must reverse the traditional process and teach the skills of communication incident to and in the process of developing understandings of people as parents, as consumers, as workers, and as individual personalities. The focus has to be on improving the understandings and skills in these areas, rather than on the abstract processes of teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic, as important as the latter are. We all recognize that you cannot be effective in any of these roles without good communication skills, but the communication skills are the tools; they are not the ends in themselves. Let me say too that this job can be done in this way. I'm convinced that a skillful teacher can teach the arts of communication in the process of dealing with the real live problems of people.

In closing, there is one other important dimension of our task in ABE that I wish to mention. This has to do with the need for developing moral and ethical values. In our ABE teacher-trainer institute here last summer, we had a panel addressing itself to the subject of the Task of Adult Basic Education, and on this panel was a preacher, Dr. Charles Wellborn, our chaplain here at the Florida State University. Dr. Wellborn made a ten-minute presentation on this subject of moral and ethical values which I'd like to read in its entirety, but time won't permit. However, there were two or three points that he made that I think we should take the time to consider for a moment. On this matter of teaching values, Dr. Wellborn said this: "The teaching of values is inescapable. Pure objectivity is a myth, and a dangerous one at that. Someone has put it neatly in this way: 'Beneath the dignified academic gowns of objectivity, the slips of faith are always showing.' If you and I are going to teach values, whether consciously or unconsciously, the responsible teacher must make some sort of rational decisions as to what values he's going to emphasize and how he will do it. Dr. Minnis of the Office of Education spoke to this group this morning very admirably and emphasized the practical, down-to-earth nature of the work that the adult is doing, and that the teacher of ABE is doing. As he detailed some of the facets of that work, I could not help but be struck by the ethical dimensions of what he said. "You're trying to teach men and women skills sufficient to fill out job applications. Is it not essential that you also teach them the importance of answering the questions on the application blanks honestly and with integrity? You're teaching men skills necessary to help get a job, to help keep a job. Is it not important also to help teach them that one way of holding a job is by doing an honest day's work for an honest day's pay? You're teaching men how to avail themselves of the credit facilities that are available to them in the community. Does this not involve teaching them the importance of paying bills and meeting their financial obligations and responsibility? You're teaching adults how to live with their children. Does this not involve some emphasis on the kind of training which parents should provide for their children?"

So, I leave you with this thought. As we deal with the problems which adults bring with them to the learning situation in Adult Basic Education, not only should we teach the skills of effective participation as parents or as citizens; not only should we teach them the kinds of things that they need to know in order to apply for a job, we should also consciously strive in the process to teach them to observe the recognized, accepted moral, and ethical values of honesty and integrity in their relationships with their fellow men.

I think the curriculum of Adult Basic Education is as broad as the problems faced by the people who participate in it. It is as high as we, the individual teachers, through our own imagination and initiative can make it.

COMMUNITY SUPPORT FOR THE ADULT BASIC EDUCATION PROGRAM

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Any discussion of "community support for the ABE programs" requires that we examine the several factors that combine to dictate the type and extent of community involvement we can have or should actively attempt to develop. Four factors seem of primary significance:

1. The perception of school officials and teachers of the purpose of ABE.
    a. Is ABE perceived as just another element of the public school program and therefore purely the province of the public schools or is it seen as being a problem of broader implications that requires the intervention of a variety of agencies, organizations, and institutions?
    b. Is ABE designed simply to abolish illiteracy or is it seen as the first step in the eradication of ignorance?

2. The teacher's concept of his role.
    a. Does the teacher see himself simply as the provider of a certain number of hours of academic instruction to a class, or does he see a need to attempt to broaden the total life experience of each of his adult students?
    b. Does he see instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic computation as an end in itself or only a beginning--a device for getting at other types of needs and problems with which his students must contend?

3. The level of commitment in public schools to ABE--What is the public school's perception of the importance of the task it has assumed? Is ABE seen as just another task that siphons off staff time and energy from the school's primary responsibility--the education of children, or is it seen as having a positive implication that might even enhance the effectiveness of the school's educational program for children?

4. The type of student recruited into adult classes.
    a. Is he to be the type of person who comes seeking on his own initiative or is he to be the type of person we must seek out and work very hard to get involved?
    b. Is he to be only the type whose earlier experiences in school were pleasant and rewarding, or must we also attempt to involve that type whose earlier experiences in school were unfortunate if not downright traumatic?

Each of these factors has relevance for the type of community support we will attempt to develop.

If we take the more limited view:
--that ABE is no more than an extension of the traditional type of public school program;
--that we are responsible only for the provision of basic instruction in reading, writing, and computation;
--that ABE populations do not need special types of interventions--if these are our views (and they are the views of some school officials) we will not need and will not want much community involvement. We have the resources of staff and teaching materials required to meet this level of commitment and, in this sort of program, the role that can be assigned the community to perform will amount to very little.

However, if we have a broader point of view and see ABE:
--as the first firm step toward the eradication of ignorance;
--as a device or a means for raising aspitation levels so that illiterate adults may come to see themselves in potentially productive and contributing roles and thereby be motivated to strive for other gains;
--as a device for reversing the pattern of consistent failure that has been the characteristic life experience of these fragile persons;
--as being a vital experience that must be provided to the unmotivated as well as the motivated;
--if this is our perception of the role and function of ABE--we will need a great deal of involvement with the community and a great deal of community support. In this context, the ABE teacher will play the role of instructor, motivator, confidant, and friend. The teacher with this point of view will not only want to help students to master the fundamental academic skills that are the core of an ABE program, but will also want to assist students in their efforts to locate and use those community resources that can meet those needs that are not primarily related to education and that do not lie within the teacher's own area of professional competence.

To achieve this level of growth and development in the population that ABE was designed to serve and to make available to them this level of comprehensive service, the ABE teacher will need to develop a level of support and commitment in which individuals, agencies, and groups in the community will feel compelled to invest time, talent, and funds not only in the furtherance of the educational, process, but in the extension and enrichment of the limited services that the school program can offer from its own resources.

Developing this kind of community support for ABE is an enormous undertaking; but the potential gain for adults is so great that it is well worth the effort. If we are to achieve maximum gain, no resource can be overlooked. We must bring into active program participation the type of expertise and resource that is available in such public agencies as: Vocational Education, Public Welfare, Public Health, Vocational Rehabilitation, Higher Education, Public Housing, the Employment Service, the Children's Services. We must secure the active assistance and intervention of such private, non-profit organizations and institutions as Family Service Societies, Legal Aid Societies, Community Action Agencies, Labor Unions, Planned Parenthood Organizations, the Red Cross, employer groups, civic groups, churches, public service organization, and the like. We must seek out specific individual volunteers who have special skills and capacities that will make it possible for us to reach those persons who are not currently involved in our programs or to reach in more significant ways those persons who are already actively involved with us.

There are no simply "rule-of-thumb" procedures that may be applied to assure the involvement of these potential resources. It is essential, of course, that certain fundamental procedures and formalitites be observed. A framework of structure must be established at the national, state, and local level to assure the cooperation of public agencies. It would be helpful if this same sort of structure could be established for those private, non-profit agencies that have national affiliations. In most instances, this type of framework or structure takes the form of working agreements or joint administrative pronouncements. And, as we have said, these agreements at the national, state, and local levels are desirable, important, and necessary. But, we would be most naive to believe that such agreements reached and subscribed to at the national and state levels will have very much effect at the local level unless someone at the local level--which really means, unless you--take positive steps to follow-up on them and implement them.

In my experience, coordination and cooperation have been most successful in those instances in which local program operators--like you and your counterparts in other agencies--have decided that it is essential and to their mutual best interests to pool their resources, talents, and skills to achieve some desired and important goal. The decision to pool resources, talents, and skills can be made only when the goal is clearly understood and its importance fully accepted by the cooperating parties. Along with the understanding and acceptance of the goal, the cooperating parties must develop a sense of deep, personal commitment and involvement in the problem.

In the beginning, this level of commitment and involvement is usually made possible only on the basis of good interpersonal relationships among the local program leaders. Someone has to go "a-wooing" and the "woo-er" may have to endure several rebuffs, as successful "woo-ers" sometimes do before a satisfactory relationship can be developed between the parties involved. If a working relationship based on personal friendship and/or mutual trust can be developed, it may be that in time and with continuing effort it can be expanded into a more professionally-based relationship that is transferable from one person to another as personnel in the agencies, organizations, or programs change. However, we must face the reality that this may not occur. Like a marriage or a garden, good working relationships cannot be taken for granted and left untended for long. Good working relationships can continue to grow and develop only so long as we are willing to keep working at them--"wooing" or "weeding" as the situation requires.

I am not suggesting that only school personnel--ABE teachers--have the responsibility for developing relationships that will result in community support and comprehensive community services. The entire community does have a stake in the total problems faced by illiterate adults; and, as a result, has a responsibility for assisting in developing resources that will make possible solutions to these total problems. But, as I said earlier, someone must take the initial step to inform the community of the need and to serve as the focal point around which programs may be developed that offer some promise of help. As the key figure in the process of student motivation, ABE teachers--you--are the logical persons to know student needs and to take the initiative to bring together those forces and services that may be able to assist students.

At this point, an ABE teacher might raise this question: "If this process requires all this effort, why bother? I already have more than I can do! I don't need to take on added burdens and additional responsibilities! Besides, I am doing all right in most of my efforts now. Why borrow more trouble?

This reaction is understandable. At some point in time, regardless of what definitive actions we may ultimately take, I am sure we would all entertain these thoughts. I suppose the ultimate decision of whether or not we will, in fact, go on with the trouble and difficulty of getting community support depends, to a very considerable degree, on our "self" perception in relation to the factors we identified at the beginning of this discussion.

----What do we see as our role as a teacher of ABE?
----What is it that we are about as teachers of the hard-core, adult, poverty population?
----What purposes should be served by involving other public agencies in our educational efforts?

These are the relevant questions. To answer them, we must analyze our professional concepts and the other important considerations that are related to the ultimate role we are to play.

We can begin with the assumption that as teachers of adults we feel a keen sense of professional responsibility to help our students to achieve their maximum level of productivity. As professional educators, we recognize that ABE, as the name implies, is not an end in itself, but is only a beginning--the "BASE" upon which something more purposeful and potentially more useful may be built. As community leaders, as well as professional educators, we recognize that having helped students establish a base upon which to build, we have assumed some responsibility for helping them to find the opportunities for building. This requires that we take positive steps to mobilize and activate the resources of the community for the benefit of our students so that they will, in fact, have the opportunity to relate their basic educational experiences to some useful and satisfying further steps.

As professionals, we will want the relationship we have with our students to have maximum impact and meaning in their lives. We will recognize that this relationship we have may be especially vital. It may actually represent the last opportunity anyone will ever have to salvage something for this particular adult or for this entire adult population. We are aware that as individuals, these students have failed themselves in the past. We are also aware that too often they have been failed by society. Now there is one more opportunity....as professional educators, and as concerned community leaders, we recognize the importance of this opportunity. We must make it count!

At the same time, we recognize that as a group, these students with whom we are working are fragile persons. Their failures have made them so. But, for reasons we may never know or understand, they have been motivated to attempt to come to grips once more with what must appear to them to be a hostile environment. They have been motivated to seek once more to salvage something from their lives, even at the risk of another failure. They have hope that something of value to self and to family may be achieved. As professionals, we have sufficient insight to be keenly aware that our role in helping them to achieve--to reach a satisfying goal--is a rare and privileged one. This is our challenge. These are the reasons we must extend ourselves.

Our intervention into the lives of these fragile persons can be useful and productive only if we are motivated by a high level of personal and professional commitment and concern. Anything less than this will undoubtedly result in another failure for this failure-prone population. If we see ourselves in the professional educator and concerned community leader roles, it seems to me that we have no alternative but to develop active working relationships with any and all agencies and organizations that can contribute to our efforts; that can broaden the experiences of our students; and that can contribute to the developmental process that will hopefully result in our students reaching their maximum level of economic and social productivity.

We will, for example, seek out Vocational Education and the Employment Service because these are the agencies that operate the Manpower Development and Training programs that may be vital for some of our students. These are the agencies that can assist our students with securing jobs; that can enrich our classroom efforts by providing insights into available jobs and job requirements; that can help us by providing the job-related counseling and vocational evaluation services that are particularly important for these students who know so little of their latent capacities and potentials.

We will want to work with Public Health because it is the agency that can provide health guidance to our students and their families, that can provide immunizations and certain other special laboratory work-ups, that can mobilize resources to provide definitive curative health services for our students and their families, and that can with our guidance, assist us with the classroom work related to good family health practices and planned parenthood.

We will want to work with Public Welfare because it is the agency that can bridge the subsistence gap for us and provide financial support for some of our students and their families. Public Welfare is an agency that can provide supportive casework services to help solve some of the intra-family problems that often result in an adult's inability to fully pursue his educational program. This agency can help to bring surplus commodities into the home to help improve diet and sustain life. It can help us and our students to gain access to other needed community services among which Title V, "Work Experience and Training," opportunities must figure prominently and importantly.

We will want to involve local Home Demonstration agents because they can enrich our classroom programs by helping with instruction in homemaking, cooking, clothes making, good buying techniques, budgeting and financial management.

We will want to involve the Children's Services because they are the agencies that can provide casework and physical restoration services to the children of the family; that can help in the development of day care services to make possible the fuller participation of adults who manage one-parent families with young children. These agencies can enrich classroom programs by providing instruction and perhaps group work experiences in the important area of child-parent relationships. This latter service might be an important deterrent to delinquency among the children of the poor.

We will want to involve Vocational Rehabilitation because it is the agency that can provide vocationally-related and problem-solving guidance and counseling; that can provide vacational evaluation services; that can provide (for the eligible disabled adults) subsistence, vocational training, physical restoration, job placement, and follow-up services.

These are only a few of the public agencies. Each has something of value to offer. In addition, each can assist in adult recruitment and in helping us to keep our students actively involved in the classroom programs we offer. They can be our contact agents in the community for student follow-up.

But, community support involves more than the public agencies. As we have said, it involves private, non-profit agencies as well, such as:

FAMILY SERVICE SOCIETIES--the important organizations that can provide problem-solving casework that goes beyond that which is usually available through the Public Welfare agencies.

LEGAL AID SOCIETIES--the organizations that can provide legal services (a constant need among the poor) and can, under our guidance, enrich classroom work by providing instruction in the area of legal rights and citizen responsibilities.

CHURCHES, CIVIC GROUPS, AND PUBLIC SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS (Red Cross, Salvation Army, etc.)--the important organizations that can provide emergency, financial support, that can provide vitally needed student transportation to and from class; that can provide recreational programs and experiences; that can provide specialized and enriching classroom instructional programs, that can help us to find the volunteers who can become teacher aides, special tutors, home contact persons, and who can serve in innumerable other service functions that are vital to good total programming for adults.

COMMUNITY ACTION AGENCIES--the organizations that have the unique potential and capacity to fill gaps in our programs that are not covered by the other services and programs that are available to us. These agencies are also our resources for getting services that might be available from another agency but which the other agency cannot, or will not, provide. Of particular value, as an example of the resource of these organizations, is the Community Action sponsored Multi-service Center. The Center provides an especially useful setting for our adult classes. At this site--in this one setting--we may be able to gather together all the professional and volunteer services our students need. In addition, such a center could provide child care and child development services to the children of our students. A Multi-service Center can also provide a quiet area for study and reading. This is only one example of the resource of the Community Action Agency. There are many, many others.

Through these relationships, through this kind of total community support and through this level of community involvement, you can make the classroom experiences of your ABE students extramely broad and dynamic. Do these gains seem worth the effort? Only you can decide! What will your decision be?

TEACHING OBJECTIVES IN BASIC EDUCATION**

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An organized program of basic education for under-educated adults is necessarily limited by the time they can or are willing to give to classroom study. While many adults, because of their greater maturity and wider experiences, may be able to learn faster than their children it is unrealistic to expect adults to cover a full eighth-grade program in 60 or even 600 hours of instruction. Therefore, this program of instruction must be limited and the curriculum of studies must be selective.

A program of basic education, however, must still give adults the best possible foundation for continued learning and better living. Whether a teacher gives leadership to an adult class for 60 or 600 hours he must select his objectives and organize his instruction so that every teaching hour will provide the most educational value for adult students.

Curriculum builders and teachers must select the most useful program of studies and must implement the most effective plans of instruction. The chart below suggests a basic curriculum which is divided into three sections, two of which provide for the teaching of selected skills and the other for the accumulation of selected knowledge.

A CURRICULUM CHART FOR BASIC EDUCATION
Three curriculum divisions--Three teaching levels

	Skills		Knowledge
Reading 8 Levels 7	Language Arts	Arithmetic	Subjects
6 Reading 5 Levels 4	for adults The skills of	skills and their use	and topics which are
3 Reading 2 Levels 1	Reading - Writing Spelling - Speaking	in adult life	important for Adults to learn

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**This paper could not be presented by Mr. Mangano in person, because the airline strike interrupted his flight schedule. The paper is presented here as a significant contribution to ABE literature.

This chart illustrates the fact that at the lowest level the greatest amount of class time should be spent on the language arts skills. It also shows this time allotment progressively diminishing as the student gains facility in the reading skills. However, the development of the skills of reading and writing remains an integral part of the curriculum through all stages of the basic education program.

On the other hand, the arithmetic skill development sections allot a smaller percentage of time at the lower levels and an increasingly greater portion of program time as the student progresses through the program.

The portion of the chart labeled Knowledge suggests an instructional program which should help adult students accumulate a wide variety of information and understandings about citizenship, government, family life, consumer education and other areas which are important to them because they are adults.

Reading

The greatest single gift that education can give to an undereducated adult is the ability to read and use the related skills of writing, spelling, and speaking. The ability to read and use the English language is not only requisite to basic education--it is the sine qua non of all education, including continued self-education. The easy facility in these skills is equally important to earning a better living, being a better parent, serving as a better citizen, and living a richer life.

If the student has little or no ability in reading, the teaching of the language skills must be the primary and continuous objective of the teacher's efforts. The curriculum, however, must provide for instruction and improvement of reading on all levels of the basic program.

Arithmetic

We cannot expect competent living from adults who do not understand numbers, who cannot use the basic number skills or apply them to their own problems. Few adults can achieve economic independence without skill and accuracy in arithmetic. The curriculum and teachers must recognize the teaching of arithmetic and its use in adult life as a major objective in a basic education program for adults.

Knowledge

Except for the adjustments to adult language and adult situations the teaching of reading and arithmetic to adults varies little from the good teaching of these same skills to youth. The third division of the basic education curriculum for adults (Knowledge on Curriculum Chart) varies most from a regular elementary school program. The variations, for the most part, stem from the fact that the students are adults who have immediate need for knowledge and must select from the volumes of available knowledge which are most important to their daily needs.

The child has time to base his education on year-long courses. The adult must build his basic education on hour or week-long topics. The child in the elementary school may not need some of the things he learns until he becomes an adult. The students in basic education are adults who are already living in the adult world of problems relating to work, family, and society. They need new knowledge to live more effectively in the contemporary adult world. Some adults will join classes, even at the lowest reading level, expecting the education they receive to be immediately and practically useful in their daily lives. However difficult it may be, basic education must be organized and teachers must adapt their teaching to meet this expectation on the part of both the students and the general society.

The first responsibility of curriculum builders and teachers of the basic education program is to select subject matter which is important for adults to learn and which can be taught in the available time. To accomplish this, inquiries should be made of adult students to determine what they would like to learn more about; examinations should be made of the areas of life in which the adult moves (work, family, citizenship, social problems, health education, housing, spending and saving money, science, leisure, etc.) to locate the basic knowledge necessary for successful engagement in these areas; adult reading materials should be examined for the selection of chapters, articles, or subjects for study and discussion; community leaders, employers, union leaders, librarians and other interested adults should be asked to suggest items which are judged to be fundamental for successful living. The daily newspapers should not be overlooked as a rich source of important adult subjects.

Through these and other procedures it should be possible to select and organize in short units of study topics or subjects which would be commonly accepted as pre-requisites to a basic education and a better life. Every course of study in basic education should recognize that adult students are citizens, or want to become citizens, and, therefore, will include a unit of study on good citizenship. This unit will necessarily cover the structure of government at the national, state, and local levels; the functions and services of government and the responsibilities of individual citizens for good government. While all programs will contain common elements--reading, arithmetic, and citizenship--programs may, however, vary in the subject matter selected. For example, in communities which organize classes exclusively for ADC mothers, subjects may be selected and included which will be most helpful for this group.

The topics which are selected to be included in the area of the curriculum labeled Knowledge do not necessarily have to be arranged in a sequential order as must be the case in the skill subjects. Neither do they have to be highly structured on any given reading or educational level. They must, however, be allotted an ample portion of the class time to assure their regular occurrence during the basic education program.

Teaching about subjects which are important for adults to learn may be accomplished in a variety of ways.

As students increase their reading skills they may be asked to read selected books, or chapters, or articles or newspaper items about a subject and report about their readings to the class, thus providing a vehicle for class discussion.

This program of subject learning does not have to wait on the student's reading ability. The teacher should make use of group discussion techniques supplemented with films, film strips, pictures, radio or TV programs which the class can watch at home (or during class hours whenever possible and practical to develop knowledge in the social living aspects of the curriculum).

Persons in the community who are informed or experienced in the subjects which are important to the class should be invited to talk to the class so that students may listen and question and learn. The class can be taken on field trips in the community to see and inquire and learn.

COMPUTER-ASSISTED INSTRUCTION

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Automated education, educational technology, programmed instruction, and teaching computers are nice phrases to remember, particularly since you are all educators. By asking the simple question, "What do you think of..." or "What is the latest on..." you can start a discussion among educators which may last for hours. The discussion may become somewhat emotional at certain points, however, so some attempt must be made to keep the conversations rational.

Automation generally evokes an emotional response rather than a philosophical one because of the context in which it is normally used. We frequently hear and read about the thousands of people who have been thrown out of work by automation. We seldom hear about the 1 to 2 million people who are working at jobs today which have been created by automation--Jobs which did not exist 5-10 years ago. Automated education, then tends to conjure up a picture of unemployed teachers and school administrators.

Educational technology tends to have somewhat the same effect. The new dictionary in our office defines technology as "the branch of knowledge which deals with the industrial arts," but that is not what the term means today. The educational technology of today has to do with the combining of men, machines, and ideas, and hence may more properly be described as a way of thinking.

Programmed instruction is, in a sense, an example of this type of educational technology. Programmed learning may or may not involve machines. Forty years ago, Sidney L. Pressey published reports of his studies using what is recognized as the first teaching machine. Pressey's machine was designed as a testing machine that presented a series of questions to each student and immediately informed him whether his answer was right or wrong. Although today's teaching machines are built on the same basic principle as Pressey's machine, not much was done with his ideas or his machine for almost 30 years.

In 1954, Dr. B. F. Skinner began to apply reinforcement theories to learning situations. Skinner reasoned that if learning materials were presented in such a way that a learner experienced nothing but success, that learning would be facilitated. Material presented according to this theory constitutes what we call a linear program and consists of short stimulus frames. The frames are interconnected and increase in difficulty as the student proceeds through the program. At completion of each frame, a question is asked, or a word is deleted from a sentence. The learner must give the response before he proceeds to the next frame. Immediately upon giving the response, the student finds out whether he is correct or incorrect. The material is developed in such a way, however, that there is little chance that he will answer incorrectly.

A second philosophy in programmed instruction is credited to Norman Crowder. Material programmed according to his theories is presented in small logical units. As the student finishes a unit, he answers a question or series of questions on it. The results of this short test are used to determine the next unit of material he will see. If his answer(s) are correct, he is branched forward; if his answers(s) are wrong, he may be branched backward to a more basic unit or to the same material presented in a different manner. Programmed material written in this way is generally referred to as branching material as opposed to the linear material written according to Skinner's theories.

Programmed instructional material, either linear, branching, or material constructed using linear and branching techniques in combination, can be purchased to cover a host of subjects. There are programs for arithmetic, science, social studies, and English at the elementary and secondary school levels as well as the college level. In addition, there are programmed texts designed to teach you how to play bridge or chess, how to follow the stock market, how to watch a football game and of course, a programmed text book on how to write programmed text books.

Computer-Assisted Instruction is the newest example of educational technology or automated instruction. It is directly related to programmed instruction in that the course material is prepared in much the same manner. Experiments in the use of computers as instructional tools began about 1960. Although Computer-Assisted Instruction is still in an experimental stage, it is recognized as a technique which offers unusual potential for the development and administration of educational courses. It places a powerful tool in the hands of the instructor and places the student in a dynamic learning situation. Material presented in CAI mode is programmed, but the author may use either linear or branching techniques or any combination of them. Thus, he has the advantages of the technological developments in learning theory as well as those of computer technology at his disposal.

With a CAI system many students and/or authors may simultaneously use teaching stations (typewriter terminals), each of which is linked to a central processor (computer). These terminals may be linked by direct wires or through regular telephones. The computer located in the CAI Center here at Florida State University has been serving students in the Center, in Atlanta and Macon, Georgia, at the Naval Weapons Laboratory in Dahlgren, Virginia, the University of Pennsylvania, and other locations. Each person who operates a terminal does so in a private tutorial environment. The instructor can accelerate the learning process, augment conventional instructional methods, simulate elements of the student's environment, edit the student's response and adjust the presentation of material as required. These objectives are possible only because of the logic of a stored program computer.

A CAI System is composed of large-capacity storage units, which in this system are disk units, a central processing or computing unit, a transmission control unit, and student/author terminals. The system, using course material prepared by an instructor, matches each student's name with the proper subject matter and prints out the beginning of the day's lesson.

The processing unit is the heart of the system and serves as the intermediary between the student and the course material. Its job is to retrieve material from the storage units and present it to the student at the terminal; the CPY processes the student's responses, courses the printing of new questions, drill materials, new assignments, etc., for each student. Through the transmission control unit traffic to the several terminals is directed in such a way and at such a speed that the individual student is seldom aware that the system is servicing anyone but him.

The student may set his own pace through the material; he may work for 15 minutes today, an hour tomorrow, and two hours the day after that. The computer maintains a complete record of his progress such that his reentry into the program presents no problem.

The course material is stored on interchangable disk packs each of which can store between 2 or 3 million characters. Each part of the course has a symbolic address so that material may be retrieved from any area of storage. Up to seven different courses may be stored on each pack and a system such as ours can have five disk storage units attached to it, thereby providing for a large and flexible course storage capability.

The author enters his material in the system from the same typewriter station which the student uses. The language he uses is simple, almost a conversational one, which can be learned by almost any author in 5-20 hours. We have tried to simplify this learning task by writing an author training course for our CAI System. Thus, we are using the CAI System to teach people how to use the system.

Instructional material may also be presented visually and/or aurally. A computer-controlled slide projector and tape recorder can be attached to the terminal so that, on command, any one of the 80 slides and/or any one of numerous verbal stimuli can be presented to the student.

Computer-Assisted Instruction at Florida State University is one of the activities of the Institute of Human Learning. The Institute is a sub-division of the Graduate School of the University. The function of this institute is research on human learning; the Institute has neither instructional nor service functions. Russell P. Kropp is Director of the Institute.

In September, 1964, the University through the Institute of Human Learning began experimental work in CAI. The endeavor was made possible through a joint agreement between the University, the State Department of Education, and the International Business Machine Corporation. IBM agreed to furnish the University with a student terminal linked by telephone lines to the IBM Research Laboratory in Yorktown Heights, N.Y., to maintain the equipment and provide consultative help. The State Department provided funds for the telephone charges, and the University provided staff for the project. The primary objectives of this project were to introduce CAI to the Florida State University faculty, to determine what instructional materials might be suitable for CAI presentation, and to investigate the use of CAI as a research tool in educational and psychological research.

In September, 1965, IBM and the University entered into a second agreement. As a result of this agreement IBM installed the CAI System. The installation consists of an IBM-1440 computer, a transmission control unit, 3 disk drive units, and 6 student-author terminals. One of these terminals has a special computer-controlled slide projector and tape recorder attached to it.

During the past 18 months, we have been learning about CAI--what types of instructional material are easily adapted to CAI presentation, what material is most difficult to adapt; what are the ages and ability levels of students who seem to work most effectively at the terminal; what are the most promising areas for the use of CAI in the instructional program. I have already mentioned one of the uses we are making of CAI, that of using the system to teach authors how to prepare material for CAI presentation.

Instructional materials on non-metric geometry, test reference, and test statistics were developed to determine what cognitive behaviors, according to Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, could be taught by CAI. The non-metric geometry course was adapted from a non-CAI programmed course and is intended for use with upper elementary and junior high school students. It deals with definitions and congruences, but not arithmetic, and includes a great deal of visual material. In addition to emphasizing cognitive behaviors, it maximizes the use of the computer-controlled slide projector. A test reference course and a test statistics course are now being administered in preliminary editions.

A course on scientific notation is intended to provide college students in general chemistry with a rational approach to problem-solving. The course introduces the student to scientific notation and then teaches him to employ it in calculating the reasonableness of final solutions of chemical problems. The course provides for differential routing of capable and slow learners.

"Intro" is a short course designed to orient students to the CAI terminal typewriter-keyboard and to teach them to enter answers correctly. It emphasizes the transfer of control to the computer upon completion of an answer, entry of answers in correct form, cancellation of typing mistakes, and re-entering correct answers. The course requires little time from students who are familiar with the typewriter keyboard, but it provides detailed explanations for inexperienced students. In addition, some fifty faculty members and graduate students from about 20 different departments within the University have been experimenting with the system in an attempt to determine its capabilities and limitations.

I would like to discuss with you one of the projects underway at the Center, the development of pre-vocational education literacy courses for use with CAI. Dr. Tim Smith, Dr. Ed Hankin, and Dr. Ed Smith are the project investigators and the project is funded by the USOE.

It is an accepted fact that the effectiveness of vocational education depends to a large extent on the assumption that the student has reached a minimum level of ability in reading and arithmetic. However, many unemployed adults are unable to reach minimal levels in these basic skills and, hence, are not only unemployed, but cannot qualify for training courses because of inadequate educational attainment. Some of these people have completed less than three years of school and would be classed as illiterates. Those with 3-7 years of school have been referred to as "industrial illiterates," i.e., they are not equipped to take a place in the technological society of today.

Literacy education has taken many forms in recent years, including night school classes, residence camps, classes in the armed forces, television (Operation Alphabet), etc. One of the more promising fields in literacy education is programmed instruction, and more directly, Computer Assisted Instruction. There are two primary reasons for the promise of CAI; one is that the mode of instruction is tutorial and the other is that the instruction can be automatically tailored to the individual.

The instructional system to be used in the Smith-Hankin-Smith project is the IBM-1440 system which I have described. The student terminal consists of a typewriter, a slide projector and a tape recorder. All three components are computer-controlled, providing the course author the option of presenting stimuli in any one of three modes or any combination of them.

Following the presentation of the material to the student, responses are entered by him via the typewriter. Responses may be single letters or numbers, yes-no, answers to arithmetic problems, or complete sentences. The system evaluates the student's response according to the prescribed pattern entered by the author and may present hints, new questions, new or additional drill or perhaps the next study assignment, depending on the evaluation.

Very little work has been done using such a system with functional illiterates. Thus, their project is a pioneering one and will work toward the development of a literacy training program which will include reading, writing, and numerical skills appropriate to grade levels two through seven.

At this time, the first unit of arithmetic, dealing with simple counting tasks, has been programmed, entered on the system, and has had a first trial run with about 12 students. The first units in reading have been programmed and will be ready for trial runs early in September.

While it is too early to make any judgements with respect to the effectiveness of this technique for the particular type of student involved, the investigators and the Center staff have high hopes for the success of this project.

There are many reasons for our interest in CAI, but one of them is that we feel that it is the responsibility of a university to be aware of and inquire into technological developments which affect education. With respect to CAI, the technological developments which are in sight and those which are just crossing the horizon indicate that within a few years CAI will be a commonplace in educational settings. There are many questions for which answers must be found before this day arrives.

First, we do not know whether CAI is economically feasible. Computer installations are expensive, although the cost will come down, and it takes many hours of time to write and prepare a course for presentation. We need to be aware of all of the costs involved and to compare these costs with those of more traditional instruction.

So, we are interested in determining whether CAI can be used to teach complex behaviors such as problem-solving and critical and creative thinking. The teaching of attitudes and values with CAI also needs to be investigated.

Many questions dealing with the relationship between CAI and live teachers need to be answered. Can a classroom teacher and CAI really work together? How are the total responsibilities of the instructional program to be divided?

There are two or three larger areas of inquiry which are of some concern to us.

The first area has to do with the relationship between ability patterns of children and instructional materials. We have known for some time that children exhibit differing amounts of ability in several important skills. For example, some will score high on tests designed to measure verbal skills and earn low scores on numerical ability tests. Special ability, general reasoning ability, verbal fluency, and number fluency are other skills which play important roles in human learning. It appears to us that with CAI, primarily because of the large storage capacity and high speed, we could provide a test of the several important abilities for CAI presentation. Then, as a result of the student's performance on this test, let the computer generate a set of instructional materials to match the patterns of ability exhibited by the student. Thus, if the student had "high" numerical ability, and "low" verbal ability concepts it could be presented to maximize the use of numbers and minimize the use of words. In short, we have a situation in which we can, essentially, create a textbook especially adapted to the ability pattern of each child rather than the same book for all children. It is conceivable that such a situation would not greatly facilitate learning.

The second area is research in the "software", the languages in which the author converses with the computer of another major concern. CAI "language" must be further developed before complete utilization of a CAI hardware system can be gained. The language must be efficient with respect to the amount of time it takes an author to program the material, and efficient in terms of the amount of time the computer needs to execute the commands it has been given. The language must be general enough to cover a wide range of instructional materials. Thus, a language must be developed which will allow for the use of everyday English as well as the conventional mathematical notation. In addition, there should be a high level of reliability and provision of error detection and prevention. Our hope is that these languages of the future will be largely conversational in nature.

Finally, the potential for providing equal educational opportunities at all levels exists in CAI. If conversational languages can be developed and programs written such that instruction is automatically generated to fit ability patterns, there exists the probability that learners of all ages may have access to terminals placed in school centers. School children will use them from 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. and their parents or other adults could use them from 5:00 p.m. to midnight.

The hardware, the machines which can accomplish these tasks, are already in existence. Their cost today is too high for widespread application, but the cost will come down. The ideas for the use of these machines have been put forth. It remains for men to round out this aspect of educational technology by using the hardware to bring the ideas to reality.

PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING READING IN ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

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I think the thing that confuses many people about "method" is their inability to understand that the one person who decides the particular aspects of classroom method is the individual teacher.

Method is a broad term. Each method is supported by many techniques; we talked about some of these this morning. Remember, I quoted you the statement made by Getzell that "Theory without practical application is dead, and practical application without theory is blind." As you learn the general principles behind a given subject of discipline, you begin to know what specific methods and techniques to use. You become scientists and artists. You need to know as much about the learning process as possible and how it occurs in the teaching-learning situation. To this extent, teaching is a science. The art comes when we are able, on the basis of a personal relationship, and on the basis of working with a person as an individual, to know how and when to use the proper techniques at the appropriate time. Neither I nor anyone else, at this present time, can give you a magic formula that will work with all students at all times. I hope you understand this. So, I would like to present to you some of the psychological and sociological aspects of instruction that seem to be of greatest importance. We will try to draw together the things that have been presented regarding the psychological and sociological aspects of the adult under-educated learner and then come up with several principles of reading instruction based on these.

Suppose we define reading. I am going to start with a very simple statement. Reading is a complex act. Have you ever tried to isolate everything you do as you read? Try to define what you are actually doing. There is a group of people who have all agreed to what the definition of reading is. The psychologist says it is getting meaning from the printed page. McKee, in his new text on teaching reading, says this is not so. Yet, we do know, each one of us can get information from the printed page.

The sociologist says reading is interacting with meaning on the printed page. In other words, on the basis of my experience, I can now come to my own decisions and disagree with the material. Let's take an example here in Florida. For years until reapportionment came along, the areas of North Florida controlled the legislature. Now the control is in South Florida. When the Miami Herald came out with the news of reapportionment the people down in Miami said, "Finally. We are going to get what we need. We are going to be able to do the things that should have been done for so many years, and those doggone North Floridians are going to get their come-uppance, so to speak."

Now how about a person in Tallahassee? He reads the same headlines in the same paper and says, "Those crazy no-good South Floridians are going to ruin the State. They'll take everything away from us." Both read the same heading and got two entirely different reactions. They interacted differently with the materials.

Next, the litterateur says reading is the appreciation of fine literature. They recommend that we use the Great Books to teach reading in adult basic education classes. I think that would be a mistake.

Words alone are meaningless. The printed pages are just a graphic representation of speech. It is merely a matter of speech put down on paper. The words are always important, and we need to study words, if only to teach the roots, prefixes, and the suffixes. It definitely helps in teaching some people to read.

Another thing to remember is that reading is not merely the sum of its parts. If it were, we could merely test people and say you missed this point, this point, and this point, on a scale of 20 different factors. Now, all we have to do is teach you the missing factors and "presto!" you can read. But,unfortunately the problem is not that simple. Even if we did teach the missing factors, this individual might still not be able to read.

Now, what is really involved in reading? I'd like to use this little chart taken from Smith and Dechants, Psychology in Teaching Reading, to give you an idea of what the total reading act involves. First of all, reading is a perceptual process. We will come back to this later. Reading is an interest. Not only does the individual become interested in reading, but he also becomes interested in the subject matter which reading involves.

Reading always involves subject matter. We do not learn to read by reading about reading. We always read about something. So, content reading is always involved in the teaching of reading.

Reading is a developmental task. Now a developmental task is one which, when completed, facilitates further growth in the organism, but unsuccessful attainment hinders or even halts further growth. ABE students have not completed the developmental task of learning to read.

Reading is also a growth process. The process that usually occurs as a result of direct instruction.

Reading is a tool for learning. We first teach a person how to read. Then, we shift our emphasis so that we are now teaching the individual to use reading as a tool for learning.

Reading is a response. We never read without reacting.

Reading requires thinking. Thus, reading is a process of the central nervous system, the brain. Reading is a visual process and if an adult cannot see clearly, he will have problems learning to read.

Now, let's go back to reading as a perceptual process. Perception, by definition, consists of sensation, images, and memory. Without memory none of us could learn. If you couldn't remember anything, you could never learn to read, write, or talk. Hebb defines perception as, "The setting up or the preparation of the organism for a response." It is an awareness of items in the perceptual field. Here is an example of perception. A person comes into this room and he sees a group of people listening to a speaker. He perceives that a class or lecture session is in process so he brings the speaker into the center of the perceptual field to find out what he is talking about. The speaker comes to the fore-front of his perceptual field and the audience fades into the background.

In reading, we have the same process. I may want to read a selection to get a clearer picture of what the author says. Then the ideas come to the forefront. Or, I may want to look for a specific bit of information or word. I then scan the article to find it. How many of you, in reading, have looked for a certain word and all of a sudden that word seems to jump right out at you?

Reading is a perceptual task. But remember, perception is a personal matter. We perceive everything on the basis of our own past experiences. If each of us were to see the word horse, we would perceive it and conceptualize it differently. I might picture a farm horse. Someone else might perceive it as a pony, another person as a race horse, etc. The reading task requires each of us to accurately perceive the meaning of the printed page.

The ability to perceive oral language is well developed in the child when he comes to school and also in the adult illiterate. One of our main tasks in teaching reading is to get the students to transfer this aural association to printed stimuli. In order to give you an idea of the difficulty of this task, I want you to take the sheets I have handed out. Tear off the front page. This is a variant alphabet. Letters A-M are based on horizontal lines. A is one horizontal line, B is two horizontal lines, C is three horizontal lines. You make D and you have a small vertical line to the left. E has two small vertical lines to the left, and F has the small vertical line equi-distant from the ends. This combination of a horizontal line base and varied positioning of the small vertical lines, top and bottom, right and left, forms the first half of the alphabet.

The letter I starts another pattern using vertical lines as the base. Here small horizontal lines extending from the vertical line base, right and left, top and bottom, form the rest of the letters of the alphabet.

Now, I am going to ask all of you to translate the following passage. You have a statement about reading, and a statement taken from an adult education reader. I am going to give you five minutes to see how far you get with translating this in order to give you an idea of the difficulty of a beginning reader trying to read. This is essentially a decoding task. How many are finished? Two? Good, you must have started early. This task is what the linguists consider the essence of learning beginning reading -- decoding. The linguists conceptualize this task differently than do the educators. The linguists maintain that the beginning reader goes from the printed symbol to the oral word and then to meaning. The educators, led by William Gray and others, maintain that the beginning reader goes from the printed word directly to meaning.

Let us use learning a foreign language as an example. When you first began translating, did you not read the word in the foreign language, then bring the English word to mind, and then come to meaning? There would seem to be a parallel here between learning to read and learning to read a foreign language. In both, the learner reads the printed stimulus, then goes to a learned response, the oral word in learning to read and the English word in learning a foreign language -- and then to meaning. It would seem that the linguists do indeed have a valid point.

Once the decoding has taken place, perception and concept formation become involved. A concept is a generalization. It takes place by means of repeated experiences with objects, places, people, and things. A child initially may call all men "daddy" and all four-legged animals "dog" or "cat" whichever he has come into contact with. Later on he learns to differentiate between his "daddy" and other men. He also eventually learns to differentiate between cats, dogs, and other four-legged animals. Through this process of concept formation, the child comes to school with a large store of concepts represented by his spoken languages. In school he must learn to attach these same concepts to printed words and develop more.

The adult learner has spent a whole life learning concepts which he uses in his spoken language. He has not learned, however, to attach these to the visual symbols involved in reading. Therefore, the task of developing concepts is of a different nature for adults than it is for children.

The whole process of perception and concept formation are a part of the central nervous system and reinforce the notion that reading is a thinking process. But it is not a natural activity that we do without being taught. Even our eyes have to adapt to the reading act which requires very acute visual ability. With the eyes we see the words and then with the brain we translate what we have read into ideas, concepts, and actions. Hence, it is even possible to conceive of having to form the concept of forming a concept. This requires a high level of abstraction and is difficult to teach.

We don't usually have to worry about this phase of reading with our ABE students. But in order to have success with the adult learner, relate these to the factors of the reading act, and then develop some principles for teaching reading to the ABE students.

First, I must identify the classification system we have used to place students at the different levels of reading:

1. The Introductory, learn-to-read phase. Here the student learns the actual process of reading and includes levels 1-3.

2. The Elementary, read-to-learn phase. Here the student learns to use reading as a tool for learning and includes levels 4-6.

3. The Intermediate. Here skills are maintained and extended and study skills are taught. This includes levels 5-8.

4. The Developmental, extending skills to a high level of competency phase. This includes level 7; the highest attainment possible for each student.

Instruction of ABE students needs to be student-centered; proceed from the simple to the complex, from the concrete to the abstract; be diagnostic in nature; bring about ego and physical involvement on the part of the students; individualized to a great extent, and use interesting and appropriate materials.

The ABE learner has little learning and the experiences he has had to this point have been completely unsatisfactory and frustrating to him.

He is failure-oriented; he has had little or no success in life. He failed in school and is thus under-educated. He failed in the economic sphere and thus is considered to be in a state of poverty. He needs success to learn that all his efforts need to not result in failure.

He has been frustrated by education. Since the day he started school, he has had trouble. He was introduced into a foreign world, so to speak. He got out of this unpleasant situation as soon as possible. He got a job, was married, and now his children form part of the group of culturally disadvantaged children attending our schools. This frustration with education does not make school seem an especially pleasant place for him to be. He usually avoids it if possible because of previous unpleasant experiences. He has a low concept of self. He has failed so often that failure, in and of itself, has become a habit.

This attitude toward life needs to be changed.

He has poor language development, and in not-verbally oriented. The ABE student is often the parent of the culturally disadvantaged child. Now, if we accept the notion that the language characteristics of the culturally disadvantaged child are the result of his home environment, then it would seem that the ABE students would have the same language characteristics, because their culturally under-privileged children, whom these parents have given the initial language experiences, will usually speak the same language as found in their homes and communities. So we can probably use much of the research on the language characteristics of culturally disadvantaged children and directly apply it to ABE classroom instruction.

He is action-oriented. He stresses the present and wants immediate gratification of his desires. ABE students would usually prefer to act out solutions to their problems and not talk about them.

He has always managed to achieve by means of his physical prowess, stamina, and strength. He feels this is the only thing others cannot take away from him. He also feels an urgency to learn now. He no longer feels that his whole life stretches ahead, but feels an urgency to attain while there is yet time. So immediate success becomes a very vital thing to him.

He has a different set of social values. The under-educated adult often does not feel bound by the same inhibitions as do middle-class people. ABE teachers do not necessarily have to accept these as their own, but must be willing to tolerate this variant cultural pattern of living and then attempt to modify it.

He is doubtful of his ability to learn. Learning, especially in the school situation, has been a very difficult thing. He has had practically no success in learning at school or on the job, hence, his illiterate status and poverty position. He needs to gain confidence in his ability to learn and be able to master school tasks.

He is ultra-conservative and fears change because he has so few alternative means of adjusting to change. Therefore, he may fear ABE classes and learning. They will bring about a change that he is totally unprepared to cope with.

He needs to have immediate success in the learning situation. If he is immediately successful, it will help him to accept learning and regain confidence in his own ability to learn.

He needs to immediately see the usefulness of what he is learning. The adult learner feels he has to waste no time and wants to make use of what he has learned right now.

He has a larger background of experiences than do children and therefore should not need to spend as much time on concept development and may result in the ability to learn faster.

He is always alert for signs of rejection.

Principles of teaching reading to ABE classes:

1. Reading is a learned skill and must be directly taught. It is not enough to teach reading incidentally. Direct instruction is necessary and vital.

2. It is as easy to teach an individual not to read as to read. Therefore, the emotions are involved and attitudes toward reading are of great importance.

3. The organism must be physically, mentally, emotionally, and socially ready to learn to read.

The adult learner who feels that he cannot, does not want to, and/or is afraid to learn, needs special help. He needs readiness activities to prepare him for the learning task involved.

4. Word recognition skills, the mechanics of reading, must be directly taught. But they do not and should not form the final goal of reading instruction. They must be taught as a means of gaining reading comprehension, but not as the end goal of reading.

5. All students learn at different rates via many different modalities of communication. Therefore, no two individuals in the class may be at the same place in instructional activities.

As much individualization of instruction must be carried out as is necessary to permit the optimal development of each student.

6. An abundance of instructional materials should be available so that the teacher may provide interesting instructional and free reading material to each student's level of proficiency.

The day when a one-textbook approach to teaching is defensible is gone. We need to have many books about many different aspects of the subject being studied. These books should be written at many different levels of readability.

7. The diagnostic approach to teaching is imperative. It involves the process of test, teach, retest, and reteach.

JUDGING ADULT BASIC EDUCATION MATERIALS

Select the material to be evaluated. Review and appraise the material for the students, and the teacher's guides. Not all points listed below will apply to all materials or all levels of instruction.

I. Philosophy represented by the materials.

   A. Is the philosophy of the materials in harmony with modern principles of adult education?

   B. Do the materials make reading an integral part of a broad program of curricular experiences?

   C. Do the materials facilitate providing for individual differences?

   D. Do the materials foster personal growth, wholesome attitudes, and sound ethical values?

II. Content

   A. Are the stories and unit themes well adapted to the interests of adults?

   B. Do the unit themes and story topics expand and extend the students' interests? Do they widen horizons?

   C. Are the contents presented immediately applicable to the lives of ABE students?

   D. Are the story topics well balanced:

      1. Between modern stories and old favorites?
      2. Between realism and some fancy?
      3. Between humorous and serious selections?
      4. Between factual and fictional?
      5. Between rural and urban themes?
      6. For all people in all sections of the country?
      7. Are all curricular areas touched on?
         a. Social studies
         b. Science
         c. Math
         d. Language

   E. Are the stories written in a lively, appealing style?

F. Do the selections represent adequate literary standards?

III. Readability

A. Vocabulary

1. Is there enough vocabulary control to insure a fairly constant reading level?
2. a. Are new words introduced at a rate which permits easy assimilation by students?
   b. Are words repeated often enough to insure adequate reinforcement?
3. Does the vocabulary include service words and vocationally oriented words?
4. Are the meanings of words stressed?
5. Are the facts of vocabulary control easily available?

B. Other factors

1. Are sentence length and structure adjusted to the stated reading level?
2. Is paragraph length adjusted to the stated reading level?
3. Is the story length adjusted to the stated reading level?
4. Are concept loading and the type of concepts developed appropriate to the stated reading level?
5. Does the style of writing contribute to readability?
6. Are the books attractive and appealing in appearance?

IV. The Teaching of Reading

A. Are the teacher's guides complete and detailed enough to present a complete reading program including:

1. An overview of the program
2. Lesson plans for each selection
3. A vocabulary development program
4. A study skills development program
5. Continuous evaluation exercises
6. Suggestions for individualization
7. Suggested audio-visual aids
8. Suggestions for related supplementary reading

B. Is readiness stressed at all levels?

C. Do the lesson plans include suggestions for inferential, interpretative, and critical reading?

D. Is the vocabulary development program adequate?

1. Is a varied word analysis identification program included?

2. Are phonic skills presented and maintained at the proper stages?
3. Are structural analysis skills presented and maintained at the proper stages?
4. Are word recognition skills functionally developed?
5. Are word recognition skills maintained and applied throughout?
6. Are context clues developed?
7. Are dictionary skills developed?
8. Is vocabulary enrichment emphasized?
9. Is meaningful reading emphasized?

E. Is the study skills program complete?

1. Are readings developed to help the student find:
    a. Main ideas
    b. Details
    c. Sequence of ideas
    d. Critical reading, drawing conclusions, making inferences, showing relationships.
2. Are reference and locational skills developed?
3. Are library reference skills developed?
4. Are organizational skills developed?

F. Are individual differences provided for:

1. Through special exercises?
2. Through specific suggestions for teachers?
3. Through specific suggestions for enrichment?
4. Through tests for diagnosis and evaluation?

G. Are provisions made for both slow learners and the more rapid learners?

H. Are content area reading skills developed and maintained?

I. Are both oral and silent reading skills developed?

V. Teaching Aides

A. Workbooks

1. Are workbooks for each level available?
2. Do workbooks provide functional, meaningful practice in using vocabulary?
3. Are comprehension and interpretation skills maintained and extended?
4. Are word recognition skills maintained and extended?
5. Are study skills maintained and extended?

6. Are critical reading skills maintained and extended?
7. Are the problems presented related to the life problems of the ABE student?

B. Tests

1. Are tests specifically designed for the series available?
2. Are diagnostic tests available?
3. Are yearly tests available?

C. Are audio-visual aids available?

VI. Physical Features

A. Type

1. Is the type clear enough to cause no visual problems?
2. Is the type large enough to cause no visual problems?

B. Pages

1. Are pages open?
2. Are pages attractive?
3. Are pages inviting?

C. Illustrations

1. Are the illustrations appealing to ABE students?
2. Are the illustrations well arranged on the page and well distributed throughout the book?
3. Do the illustrations help clarify the text, build meanings, and add interest to the reading?

D. Paper

1. Does it meet readability requirements?

E. Cover and Binding

1. Are the covers attractive?
2. Are the books well made and durable?
3. Are the books small and compact?

SUMMARY: Summarize and review your findings in narrative form.

EVALUATIVE CRITERIA FOR THE SELECTION OF ADULT BASIC EDUCATION INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL

1. Is the philosophy of the materials in harmony with modern principles of adult education?

2. Do the materials make reading an integral part of a broad program of curricular experiences?

3. Do the materials facilitate providing for individual differences?

4. Do the materials foster personal growth, wholesome attitudes, and sound ethical values?

5. Is the content appropriate for adults?

6. Is the cost nominal? The course content is a prime factor; however, the cost should be an important consideration.

7. Is the type of print large enough? Visual acuity has decreased in adulthood. The print should be easy to read.

8. Is the book printed with different color inks?

9. Is there a summary, vocabulary list with definitions, questions, etc?

10. Is the edition date fairly recent?

11. Is the textbook designed as a guide for the teacher, not the sole determinant for the course objectives? The instructor must supplement the instruction with A-V aids, resource persons, and a myriad of materials available from many sources. Are there suggestions for these supplementary instructional aids?

12. Has a textbook selection committee been established? This committee should be composed of teachers of adults, administrators, and possibly some students. It should recommend for adoption textbooks appropriate for adults and embodying the guidelines for the selection of these books.

13. Is the adoption period approximately three years in length? However, if better and more effective books become available, their adoption can be at an earlier date. The existing inventory of such books shall be an important consideration.

SPECIFIC CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING THE CONTENTS, ORGANIZATION, AND FORMAT OF THE MATERIALS

1. Are the goals for each lesson clear, practical, and attainable?

2. Does each lesson teach one or two concepts thoroughly?

3. Are subject matter and learning activities familiar and interesting to adults?

4. Does the content, whenever possible, raise the self-esteem and status of the adult student?

5. Do the materials motivate or encourage individual reading, speaking, writing, and other study?

6. Is the language used in lessons adult in tone?

7. Are sentences used in lessons similar to the sentence patterns used by adults in oral communications?

8. Are the skills and concepts taught in sequential, logical order?

9. Do the drawings, illustrations, and other graphics clarify ideas presented verbally?

10. Are the materials written in such a manner that the students can follow the lessons to a large extent by themselves? They should not be too dependent on instructors.

11. Do the materials have built-in measuring devices to show both quantitative and qualitative student progress?

12. Do the materials instruct in actual life situations, such as food, property, job, voting and civics, saving, social security, housing, homecraft, safety, etc.?

TEACHING READING TO ADULTS

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The art of teaching reading is as well developed as any other in the teaching profession. Effective instruction is the same for adults and children. All learning comes out of our own individual experiences and has meaning only when directly related to them. Purpose governs learning, and a good teacher makes learning meaningful to the students.

Daniel A. Prescott of the Institute for Child Study of the University of Maryland has defined teaching very precisely. "Teaching is the art of creating an environment in which learning takes place." All instruction including reading is an indirect process. One cannot "teach" a subject as one might "construct" a house. In a strict sense a teacher cannot teach reading anymore than a gardener can grow a flower. Under proper conditions a flower will grow because it is its nature to do so, and with normal human beings the tendency to master the environment through learning is equally spontaneous and natural. The function of the teacher according to Prescott then is to plant the seeds of learning and provide as encouraging environment.

However, the adult learner is unique in many respects, and his teacher must be alert to the differences which will be particularly important in teaching adults to read. Let us look at these special characteristics of the adult learner with the eye to implications for instruction.

A most important point that a teacher, accustomed to working with younger students, should remember is that the adult will have a much larger vocabulary than the typical six-year-old and a great deal more experience to bring into the learning experience. Because of this it is not necessary for the teacher to spend the same amount of time building the background of language and readiness experience usually required by the child. If an adult is of normal intelligence, the teacher can assume that he possesses the perceptual and motor skills and the conceptual experience necessary for reading.

Knowing this a teacher might use a language experience approach with adults to great effect. Through discussion the teacher could discover what words and events were of interest to the class members and translate these into simple sentences or phrases. By drawing on oral language and ideas shared by the class, a teacher can build a sight vocabulary of highly charged, interest words. Even the illiterate understands a great deal about family, social, and economic realities. As students express their knowledge in the form of oral language, the teacher can translate key words into the visual "code" of written language and facilitate a transition from one language system to another. These techniques will be discussed in greater detail later in the program.

On the other hand this greater age and experience has its negative side. For while the adult knows more words than the child, his pronunciation of these may present special problems in the teaching of phonics. It is generally recognized that beyond the early teens speech patterns become difficult to alter. With children it is possible for a teacher to introduce speech sounds more in keeping with conventional pronunciation. But with the adult learner the process is not so easy. Wilder Penfield, the neurologist, has pointed out in his book Speech and Brain Mechanisms, that the central nervous system is its first decade is very plastic and can quickly master new sounds. Through direct exposure and repetition, children quickly learn to vary their accents, but the adult who has developed and used a set of speech sounds or accents for many years finds it almost impossible to change.

Therefore the teacher of adults should not expect to alter completely the accents of the adult. This means that in using a phonic approach to word attack skills, the teacher will find that certain vowel and consonant sound patterns are very hard for some adults to master.

Moreover the greater experience of the adult can be a problem as well as an asset. The under-educated adult will usually come from a social background quite different from that of the teacher, and this can create difficulties in communication. The friendly policeman in the Dick and Jane, middle-class world may be quite a different symbol to the adult product of a lower-class ghetto.

Another advantage which the teacher of adults will enjoy is the relative degree of maturity that they possess. Adults are rarely a discipline problem. When they attend a class they know how they are expected to behave and do so without any need for teacher control. Moreover, most adults have a longer span of attention than do children. They will listen politely to the teachers lectures or remarks and do whatever they are asked so long as it seems to be meaningful to them.

There is however, another side to this adult behavior. For though the adult will be attentive and cooperative while attending a class, unless he feels the course to be worthwhile he will stop coming. As soon as an adult feels dissatisfied with his progress or threatened by the teacher's manner of presentation, he will find excuses for not coming. This problem is particularly acute in the case of the disadvantaged adult. It is a psychological fact that anyone who has had a painful experience will develop an aversion for that area of experience. Many of these adults will have a record of school failure, and when they return to a similar situation, they will be anxious and full of doubt about their own capacity to learn.

The key word to remember in order to help these students overcome their hesitancy is acceptance. Because of their past experience these adults will be hyper-sensitive and may perceive normal teacher behavior as rejection or disapproval. Even a perfectly normal adult, when filled with anxiety and uncertainty, will become self-conscious and defensive. Ambiguous remarks and innocent gestures may be interpreted as implying criticism.

Though all of this may sound complicated and difficult, the problem is easy to solve. In order to circumvent this behavior, the teacher needs to keep in mind one basic rule of effective teaching. Before beginning formal instruction establish a relaxed, friendly atmosphere in the classroom. A few simple measures will help accomplish this. First, be informal with your students. The reserve necessary to keep order in a class of children is out of place with adults regardless of educational level. Second, greet each student on the first night with a friendly handshake. Touch is a direct indication of acceptance, and the convention of the handshake welcomes a person as a peer in a social situation rather than an inferior. Third, introduce yourself to the class and then have the students introduce themselves to each student, and get him to talk about his goals in taking the course. If you can convince an adult student that you are friendly and interested in helping him learn, most of his psychological problems will be gone.

The Nature of Reading

In order to teach reading it is helpful to understand it as part of a larger system of communication called language. Human language is a process of communication called words, for with words men are able to exchange ideas with one another. When the words are in the form of sound, they are called speech, and when men learn to record these words in a visual form, they are called writing.

Reading can be defined quite simply as the process whereby we get meaning from written words. Words are signals, signs, and symbols which stand for objects, experiences, and ideas which men share. The vast majority of these are in a conventional form. Which means to say that there is nothing in the shape or sound of the words which would suggest their meaning. The reader must know in advance the "code" or language being used. This is what Shakespeare meant by the expression: "A rose by any other name would smell as sweet."

In order to read a word, then, two things are necessary. First, the reader must be familiar with the language or vocabulary, and second, he must have had some direct experience with the ideas that the author is trying to communicate.

Physical Basis of Reading

First of all, reading requires normal or corrected vision. A clear visual impression of the words is the starting point. Beyond the normal visual capacity of the student the reading process is greatly aided by clearly printed textbooks and well-lighted classrooms. The teacher of adults must be alert for signs of visual distress on the part of the students. If the learner seems to be having difficulty focusing on the words, he should be referred to a vision specialist.

Role of Perception

Many persons who have no apparent visual defects may still have difficulty distinguishing certain words. Moreover, for reasons that are not altogether understood, some readers suffer from a disorder called strephosymbolia. They will read "was" for "saw" or "no" for "on." Frequently these same readers will misread words spelled alike such as "horse" for "house." Special drills may by necessary to eliminate these tendencies. Such drills are described in Bulletin #71H-5, Techniques for Teaching Remedial Cases, Adult Education Section, Florida State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida.

The clear perception of a word, however, does not constitute reading, for in order to get meaning from the printed words one must be able to associate them with the ideas or things which they represent. When the reader looks at the word "dog" for example, several things may happen. First, he may get an impression of the spoken word and then almost immediately he may see in his mind's eye the shape of a dog, in a general form, or even a particular dog with which he has had experience first-hand. Second, a great number of memories of dogs and facts about dogs may come to mind. If he has had pleasant experiences with dogs he may feel happy; but if, on the other hand, he was once bitten by a dog he may feel aversion. All of the above occurs in a split second as the reader moves on to the next word.

However, the associative process of getting meaning does not stop with single words, because in our language words frequently derive their meaning from the context in which they appear. Look at the word "fast":

(1) The boy ran fast.
(2) The boy was stuck fast.

In the first sentence the word means motion and in the second sentence it means just the opposite. Many of our words have this attribute of multiple meanings, and therefore, the reader must be able to sustain his attention over several words in order to be sure of the use of any particular word. Good readers learn to read and think in phrases. Once beyond the level of elementary word attack skills, much time in a reading program should be spent on reading for meaning.

Role of Oral Reading

Since all normal adults will have developed an extensive spoken vocabulary with which they are able to communicate effectively, it is only natural that we should build reading comprehension skills on top of the existing oral language patterns. Particularly in the early stages of reading instruction students will find it natural to "see" and "say" their way through reading exercises. When asked to read silently, most students will persist in going through the motions of saying words even though inaudible to the teacher. At this point, the dependence of the reader on his oral language associations is so strong that he cannot think of the meaning of the word without hearing it mentally. The association between reading and speaking has been called inner speech or sub-vocalization, and most reading authorities today regard it as a natural developmental stage in learning to read.

However, since the rate of speech is comparatively slow, the mature reader learns to reduce his dependence on auditory imagery and motor speech. As the adult student reaches a level of independent reading, he should be encouraged to read silently and as rapidly as he can while still getting meaning. Slowword-byword reading can interfere with concentration and consequently interfere with comprehension.

The question of "speed reading" is still a matter of some dispute and about all that can safely be said is that students should read as fast as they think. Where the reader seems to be having difficulty with the text, it may be helpful for him to reread a passage aloud and even stop and think about it. Recent research in both the U.S. and Europe has indicated that even very skillful readers when presented with unfamiliar ideas in a written form will slow down and resort to inner speech. In a balanced reading program, therefore, the teacher will make sure that some of the material is easy enough so that the readers may read for speed; and with more difficult material, the teacher will use oral reading and group discussion to develop comprehension.

Goals of Reading Instruction

As the adult student makes progress in the mastery of reading, the goals and points of emphasis of the instruction change. In the beginning, reading is largely a matter of word recognition. Along with sight recognition, learning to recognize a word by its visual appearance, students learn word attack skills. With these they sound out parts of words and try to match unknown written forms with familiar spoken words. Then as the student's ability to "decode" visual language becomes rapid, effortless, and automatic, it is possible to shift his "learning" attention to new areas.

In later stages new and more difficult reading material is introduced to the student. He has learned to read and now he must read to learn. He must learn to look for key words, main ideas; and he must be taught how to analyze, criticize, and make inferences. Along with these essential skills, he must be helped to find in reading a source of recreation. Recreation reading, whether fiction, poetry, or current events, is a major source of continuing vacabulary development and a most valuable means of refining reading proficiency. Remember, mastery of reading is really the mastery of a whole dimension of human experience. The accomplished general reader has in reality been given a declaration of intellectual growth. This is the final goal of reading instruction.

Methods of Reading Instruction

Scholars inform us that reading has been taught for about four thousand years, and, as might be expected, during that extended period of time a number of different methods have been employed. Just since the turn of the century, there have been some twenty thousand articles dealing with the teaching of reading published in the professional journals.

It is not surprising, therefore, to discover that there are available to the teacher of reading a variety of methods of instruction. But while these methods vary in emphasis they all contain substantial areas of agreement. Edwin H. Smith has made an excellent statement about the problem of reading methodology; Dr. Smith writes:

> "Research in teaching reading tells us that no one approach is suitable for all students. It also tells us that all of the approaches work well with some students! As no competent teacher uses one approach to the teaching of reading, no teacher uses the same techniques for reinforcing an approach with all students. Techniques make approaches work! The authors of this bulletin have been collecting techniques for a long time; some have been gathered from the literature, others have come from observing master teachers at work--few are original. Some of the techniques will work well for some teachers with some students, and you should choose those which fit both you and the students with whom you are working."[1]

These words of Dr. Smith will serve to set the guidelines of our discussion of reading methods. If the teacher of adults has at his disposal a variety of techniques and a flexible attitude toward the application of them, then he will achieve the best results.

The most important point to keep in mind when evaluating reading methodologies is that when combined with effective instruction all systems have worked. Research has shown that the quality of instruction is the single most significant factor influencing the learning process. The vast majority of children or adults possess the ability to learn to read. Moreover, they can and have learned to read with all kinds of materials including those which have been improvised by teachers. If you as a teacher are really interested in your adult students and find pleasure in their progress, if you come to class prepared, and if you are able to adjust instruction to meet individual problems, you will succeed with any method.

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[1] Bulletin 71 H-3, Specific Techniques for Teaching Reading, Adult Education Section, Florida State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida.

The Role of Phonics in Reading

As had been suggested, there are several useful techniques which assist the reader in the mastery of new words. Perhaps the most complex of these is phonics. Since the term phonics is sometimes confused with phonetics--let us distinguish these two.

Phonetics is the science of speech sounds. It has developed, for its own use, a special alphabet very different from our conventional alphabet of 26 letters. From the science of phonetics has come a special knowledge about language and its structure. When this knowledge is applied to the teaching of reading it is called phonics. Phonics gives the teacher information about the relationships between words and their parts as spoken and words and their parts as written.

The English language is made up of about 44 different sounds called phonemes. Out of this relatively limited group of "noises" we are able to construct an unlimited number of words to meet our needs. When a society begins to record its language in a written form it has two basic choices. One, to represent each word with a distinctive pattern of characters usually derived from earlier forms of "picture writting." This approach can be seen in the hieroglyphic writing of the Egyptians.

In order to learn to read this kind of language, it is necessary to master almost every character or word separately. The student must memorize literally hundreds of distinct visual configurations, each standing for a different word or idea. Now as a matter of fact, this is still the case with some written languages today. Chinese, for example, is such a language and so difficult to learn that some psychologists doubt that general literacy will be achieved in China until its written language is simplified.

Fortunately, most languages, including English, took a different course of development. In English we have adapted the alphabetic system of the Phoenician, thus phonetics, and have developed an alphabet in which sounds are represented by graphic signs or letters. This means that instead of requiring thousands of separate written forms, it is possible to represent all the words we need by an alphabet of only 26 letters.

Therefore, it would appear that learning to read in English should be simply a matter of matching an existing set of oral signs with a relatively small number of corresponding visual marks. If a person has mastered the spoken language then learning to read is just mastering another form of the "code."

This seems to be true with certain languages such as Italian and Russian which are isomorphic or consistently spelled. In an isomorphic language there is regularity between the spoken sounds and the written alphabet, for each sound there is one letter.

However, in many languages, of which English is one of the best examples, there is no such simple agreement. The teaching of reading in English is complicated by the fact that it is not a completely phonetic language; there is not a one-to-one relationship between the phonemes and the phonogrames. First of all, there are only 26 letters in the alphabet but about 44 distinct sounds in our speech. This requires some letters to carry more than one sound. The letter "a", for example, has over twenty distinct pronunciations. Second, the same sound is not always spelled the same way, and third, regional dialects have created a great variety of sounds used in our spoken language.

According to some estimates the vocabulary of English is about seventy percent phonetic in spelling. This would sound encouraging until we discover that certain words appear with much greater frequency than others. These most common words make up about fifty per cent of most ordinary written communications, and it is among these most commonly encountered words that we find the greatest inconsistency in spelling. Therefore, an exclusively phonic approach, unless is takes advantage of a specially selected vocabulary, will work only two-thirds of the time.

From the above it should be clear that teaching phonics is complicated and should not be undertaken without the guidance of a complete program of instruction. Otherwise the students may begin to flounder when they encounter one of the many exceptions to the rules.

For example, if a student is introduced to the sounds of separate letters, he may have to unlearn the sound of double "O" as it appeared in "stood" when he meets the same letters in the words "spoon" or "tooth." He will search in vain for any obvious pattern in such words as "won" and "one" or "two," "too," and "to" or "I,aye, and eye."

Also in teaching adults, it is worth repeating that their particular speech patterns, accents, and pronunciations are very difficult to change. Even men of great intellect and education who acquire English as adults usually reveal the country of their origin by the phonemes which persist in their new speech. In any adult basic education classroom the problem may be even more severs. Those students with strong regional dialects may find phonics a problem.

Most of the books published on reading instruction suggest that phonics be included as an important part of a broad program of reading instruction. Neither the sight recognition method nor the phonic method should be regarded as mutually exclusive; each is inadequate without the other.

Phonic constitutes one approach to word recognition. A good teacher will also draw on context clues, prefixes, suffixes, roots, and other elements of compound words. It is also helpful to teach students how to look up words in a dictionary, and to divide words into syllables. Phonics should be used in conjuction with these other methods.

Moreover, before a student is instructed in phonic rules, it is generally considered preferable that he have first mastered a fairly extensive sight vocabulary of words which are familiar to him. Estimates run from fifty words to several hundred.

This simple direct association of words through sight and sound, see and say, is perhaps the most popular method of beginning reading instruction. The experience chart is particularly adaptable to this approach. The first charts can be very simple. Just a sentence on the blackboard with a blank to fill. For example: My name is ________; My wife's name is______; We live at _________; or, I work at__________. Gradually the student develops a sight vocabulary as well as confidence in his ability to learn.

It is worth noting that in this method of associating written symbols with spoken symbols that it is not the spoken word in itself that gives the written word its meaning, but rather the fact that the learner has already built up a rich association between the conventional oral symbols we call his speech and the object and experiences they represent. Ultimately all meaningful communication depends on commonly shared experiences.

Learning Style

Finally let us point out that individuals vary a good deal in their learning style. Many years ago, William James noted that some adults have very characteristic imagery in their thinking processes. Some adults are very adept at calling up a clear and sharp visual impression of anything that they have experienced. Though this ability to see in the mind's eye with accuracy is most characteristic of very young children, it does, in some instances, persist into adulthood. This kind of learner can on demand reconstruct in amazing detail any recent or well-learned visual experience. Naturally in the learning process they appear to profit from seeing in illustration, models, or diagrams the elements to be learned. In terms of reading these, adults will learn well from their analysis of the structural forms of words.

Others, as James noted, seemed to prefer auditory impressions as a basis of learning. These types depend greatly on what they hear. In reading they internalize speech patterns and profit much from phonic rules which guide their auditory memory. These learners can have difficulty remembering the visual forms of words.

The third and last type which James discussed was the "motor type." This group seems to depend on the imagery of muscular movements. They "think" words by experiencing in some way the actual movements of the speech apparatus. They can be helped in retaining word forms by writing or tracing them.

An astute teacher of adults will be alert to these differences in learning style and be prepared to provide each type with exercises designed to appeal to individual patterns of learning.

Though learning to read is basic to our way of life, many Americans are seriously deficient in this communication skill. This is why competent reading instruction is so essential to any program of adult basic education. The ability to read is the key to almost all other learning. It is skill that all Americans must possess if they are to function fully as employees, parents, citizens, and as productive individuals.

Therefore, effective reading instruction must be regarded as fundamental to any basic education program. Teachers of adults must realize that the accomplishment of competence in reading is prerequisite to all other phases of their programs. Education is a matter of coping with books; dictionaries, textbooks, pamphlets, and magazines. Until adults are able to make use of these tools of learning, their educational horizons are limited. As Albert J. Harris, the noted reading authority, has put it, "One must learn to read so that he can read to learn."

Finally, the teacher of adults must be aware of the differences in learning style of the adult and the child. He must understand something about the physiological and psychological characteristics of the mature human being in order to be effective in his instructional techniques.

COUNSELING AND RENTENTION

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Roy Thompson, a reporter on the Winston-Salem, N.C., Journal frequently comments on the American scene, and his comments usually reflect a unique viewpoint. Here Mr. Thompson expresses his unique viewpoint in the format of a letter. Is guidance really needed by all?

* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *

Dear Miss Carpenter,

The bearer of this note is William Harper Penrose Parker, IV. He is my son and this is his very first day of school. I would have brought him, but my husband and I have tried to teach William Harper Penrose to be self-reliant. For this reason I am staying in my car. I will be there until school is out. At least for the first few weeks.

He is an unusual child so I hope that you will not mind if I make a few suggestions.

First, there is the matter of his seat. I would suggest that you find him a seat by himself. He is not accustomed to close contact with other children and he might otherwise find himself uncomfortable. Also, he bites.

You will notice that he has a little paper bag with him. William Harper Penrose isn't a breakfast-eating boy so he is likely to become hungry soon after reaching school. He will bring jelly sandwiches with him every day. This is to spare you the trouble of taking him out for a snack. However, I do wish that during recess you would see to it that he has an ice cream cone. If he should become hungry again before lunch, just take him out for a candy bar.

Also, in the bag you will find some pills that the doctor has prescribed. They are to stimulate the child's appetite. He seems strong enough, but he never seems to be hungry at lunchtime.

You may find that William Harper Penrose may become restless in class. Just turn the TV on. We have found that it usually quiets him. If this doesn't work, you may want to take him outside and let him play. Be sure to watch him at all times. We don't believe in saying "don't" to a child. It can do incalculable damage during the formative years.

You may find that William Harper Penrose may sometimes demand the property of another child. We have denied him nothing. I'm sure the other children will understand.

I envy you, Miss Carpenter. With the exception of a mother and father, there is probably no other adult who exerts so much influence on a child as does his first-grade teacher. In William Harper Penrose you have an exceptional opportunity. I believe that is all.

No, there is one more thing. I have taught him to raise his hand at certain times. If you see him raise his hand, please take him at once. He is inclined to be nervous.

Very Sincerely Yours,

Mrs. W. H. P. Parker, III

PS: If William Harper Penrose is crying when he raises his hand, this doesn't mean that he wants to go...it means he has gone.

* *

Like the hopeful mother above, the public is becoming more aware of the word "guidance." Those of us who are responsible for guidance in the schools and in education in general, have one understanding of guidance; persons working with missiles and space programs at Cape Kennedy and other space centers have another concept of the word. True, there exist certain parallels in these two views on guidance; there are also certain very definite deviations. For example, when a missile is developed the engineers and technicians install an inertial guidance system. We in education say that the objective of our educational program and our guidance and counseling program is the student's self-guidance. The technical experts at the Cape fire their missiles while we in education graduate our seniors, but here the analogy suddenly becomes overdrawn. If something goes wrong with the missile, the experts at the Cape press a "panic" button which destroys the misdirected missile; when our graduates become misdirected after they have left school or sometimes before they actually graduate, educators have no "panic" button to press.

So, if we neglect to serve the needs of each of our students, if we do not understand them as individuals, if we fail to know their personal needs or do not provide facilities for the students to accomplish their needs, we in education are left without an opportunity to begin anew. Therefore, educators must be sure, as they look at the shape of things to come, that they are developing within their schools the educational climate so that each student may be stimulated to make the most of his potentialities, so that each student may make a worthwhile contribution to his community when he becomes an adult.

Dr. Benjamin Willis, superintendent of the Chicago City Schools, one time said: "If instruction is the mind in education, guidance is its heart. If knowledge is the aim of instruction, wisdom is the goal of guidance, for wisdom is the way in which knowledge is held." How do school counselors fit into this educational picture? Perhaps the best answer is to look at the role of the counselor.

I. Who are the counselors and what is their role?
It is my firm belief that the school counselor's primary role is in counseling. He assumes other roles such as consultant, resource person, researcher, etc., and educator, as those roles support the primary role of the counselor. The following ten basic and distinct functions of the school counselor in specialized areas are intended as guidelines for the development of effective counseling programs and for the professional development of individual school counselors. They are guidelines set up by the American School Counselor Association for secondary school counselors.

1. Planning and Development of the Guidance Program.
An effective guidance program in a school results from cooperative effort of the entire staff in planning and developing the program. Parents, pupils, and community agencies and organizations can also contribute toward these efforts. It is essential that the objectives of the program and procedures for meeting those objectives be clearly formulated.

In planning and developing of the guidance program, the school counselors:

a. Assist in defining objectives of the program.
b. Identify the guidance needs of pupils.
c. Assist in developing plans of action.
d. Coordinate various aspects of the program in a meaningful sequence of guidance services.
e. Assist in continued guidance program planning and curriculum development.
f. Evaluate the program and assist other members of the school staff in evaluating their contributions to guidance services.

2. Counseling. It is essential that the majority of a school counselor's time be devoted to individual or small-group counseling. In a counseling relationship the counselor:

a. Assists the pupil to understand and accept himself as an individual, thereby making it possible for the pupil to express and develop an awareness of his own ideas, feelings, values, and needs.
b. Furnishes personal and environmental information to the pupil, as required, regarding his plans, choices, or problems.
c. Seeks to develop in the pupil a greater ability to cope with and solve problems and an increased competence in making decisions

and plans for which he and his parents are responsible.

3. Pupil Appraisal. The school counselor needs to assume the roles of leader and consultant in the school's program of pupil appraisal.

   In pupil appraisal the school counselor:
   a. Coordinates the accumulation of meaningful information concerning pupils through such means as conferences with pupils and parents, standardized test scores, academic records, anecdotal records, personal data forms, records of past experiences, inventories, and rating scales.
   b. Coordinates the organization and maintenance of confidential files of pupil data.
   c. Interprets pupil information to pupils, parents, teachers, administrators, and others professionally concerned with the pupil.
   d. Identifies pupils with special abilities or needs.
   e. Takes advantage of available data-processing equipment for facilitating the processing and transmission of pupil data.

4. Educational and Occupational Planning. Every effort should be made to provide pupils and parents with an understanding of the pupil as an individual in relation to educational and occupational opportunities for his optimal growth and development and to promote self-direction of the pupil.

   The counselor:

   a. Assists the pupil and his parents in relating interests of the pupil, aptitudes, and abilities to current and future educational and occupational opportunities and requirements, long-range educational plans and choices.
   b. Collects and disseminates to pupils and parents information concerning careers, opportunities for further education and training, and school curricular offerings. These activities should be provided through a carefully planned sequence and may include group and individual sessions with pupils and parents, special programs, provision of up-to-date educational and occupational files readily accessible to pupils, bulletin boards, guidance newsletters, and visits by pupils to educational institutions and business and industry.
   c. Assists pupils and parents in understanding procedures for making applications and planning for financing the pupil's educational goals beyond high school.
   d. Consults with school administrators and members of the school faculty relative to the curricular offerings which will meet the abilities, interests, and needs of the pupils.
   e. Assists in the educational and occupational planning of pupils who have withdrawn or who have been graduated from the school.

5. Referral Work. The Counselor has a major responsibility in making and coordinating referrals to both other specialists in pupil personnel services and public and private agencies in the community.

   Recognizing his own limitations to provide total service, the counselor:
   a. Assists pupils and parents who need such services to be aware of and to accept referral to other specialists in pupil personnel services and community agencies.
   b. Maintains a close working relationship in referrals to other specialists in pupil personnel services.
   c. Identifies pupils with special needs which require the services of referral sources.
   d. Identifies community referral agencies and their services.
   e. Assists in the development of referral procedures and in the maintenance of liaison and cooperative working relationships with community resources.
   f. Provides a follow-up referral of agency recommendations to help the pupil and/or his family work through the problems.
   g. Encourages the development and/or extension of community agencies for handling pupil referrals.

6. Placement. The counselor's role in providing placement services for individual pupils involves assisting them in making appropriate choices of school subjects and courses of study and in making transitions from one school level to another, one school to another, and from school to employment. Placement thereby involves the informational services of educational and occupational planning, pupil appraisal, and counseling assistance appropriate to the pupil's choices and progress in school subjects, extra-curricular and community activities, and employment.

   In addition to these other types of assistance which aid effective placement, the counselor:
   a. Helps pupils and parents to make a long-range plan of study for the high school years, and assumes responsibility for periodic review and revision of such plans according to the need, as shown by such factors as changes in the curriculum, pupil appraisal data, school achievement, the pupil's maturity and new goals.
   b. Plans with administrators and teachers: 1) to provide an appropriate classroom placement for pupils with special abilities or disabilities, and 2) to establish procedures for course selection by pupils and grouping of pupils.
   c. Helps furnish pupil data to the receiving school when a pupil transfers, obtains pupil data for new pupils, and gives individual pupil data to educational and training institutions, prospective employers, and employment agencies.
   d. Assists in giving pupils and parents an understanding of procedures for making applications and financial plans, for attend-

ing educational or training institutions, and for making application for employment.

e. Confers with admissions personnel and personnel directors and visits educational and training institutions as well as business and industries applicable to pupils in his school.

7. Parent Help. The counselor holds conferences with parents and acts as a resource person on the growth and development of their children.

Through individual or group conferences the counselor:

a. Interprets the guidance and counseling services of the school.
b. Assists parents in developing realistic perceptions of their children's aptitudes, abilities, interests, attitudes, and development as related to educational and occupational planning, school progress, and personal-social development.
c. Provides parents with information about school policies and procedures, school courses offerings, educational and occupational opportunities and requirements, and resources that can contribute to the fullest development of their children.

8. Staff Consulting. The school counselor works closely with members of the administrative and teaching staffs to the end that all of the school's resources are directed toward meeting the needs of the individual pupils.

In staff consulting; the counselor:

a. Shares appropriate individual pupil data with staff members, with due regard to confidentiality.
b. Helps teachers to identify pupils with special needs or problems and keeps teachers informed of developments concerning individual pupils which might have a bearing upon the classroom situation.
c. Participates in in-service training programs, staff meetings, and case conferences through which he discusses his own role, interprets a child-centered point of view, and encourages effective use of pupil data in teaching activities and guidance services given by teachers.
d. Assists teachers to secure materials and develop procedures for a variety of classroom group guidance experiences.
e. Provides materials and information concerning such matters as the characteristics and needs of the pupil population, pupil post-school behavior, and employment trends for use in curriculum study and revision.

9. Local Research. Research in guidance is concerned with the study of pupil needs and how well school services and activities are meeting those needs. The school counselor shall play a role of leadership in determining the need for research, conducting or cooperating in research studies, and discussing research findings with members of the school staff.

The counselor conducts or cooperates with others in conducting studies in areas such as the following:

a. Follow-up of graduates or pupils who have withdrawn.
b. Relationship of scholastic aptitude and achievement to selection of courses of study, class placement, and post-high school education and occupational placement.
c. Characteristics, as well as educational and guidance needs of the pupils.
d. The use of records and pupil personnel data.
e. Occupational trends in the community.
f. Evaluation of the school's counseling and guidance services.

10. Public Relations. The school counselor has a responsibility for interpreting counseling and guidance services of the school to members of the school staff, parents, and the community. All of his services in the guidance and counseling program have potential public relations value.

In discharging his responsibility in public relations the school counselor may:

a. Participate in programs of civic organizations and other community groups.
b. Prepare or furnish information for articles in school and community publications.
c. Assist in programs for presentation by radio or television.

Today's and tomorrow's counselor is responsible for working with all students.

-----Not just with the superior students
-----Not just with the college board students
-----Not just with the maladjusted or potentially maladjusted
-----Not just with the low ability students or the student with the low I.Q.
-----BUT ALL STUDENTS

LET ME SHARE "THE VOICE OF THE LOW IQ" WITH YOU:

The Voice of the Low I.Q.

Effa A. Preston, New Brunswick
from the New Jersey Educational Review
March, 1937.

"Yeah, I'm in the special class this term. Sure, I like it all right, we have lots of fun and the work's got some sense to it. I can do it. Why did I get put there? Well, I ain't sure. The report said I had a low IQ, but nobody noticed it till last spring when I couldn't get along in Miss Brown's class. She gave me the test and when I handed in my paper she looked at it and said, 'Just what I thought. I knew he didn't belong in here.'

Yeah, it was something they call an Intelligence Test. It was awful funny. At first, I thought it was a joke, but it turned out it wasn't. You had to put crosses on pictures and circles around 'em and lines under 'em and dots over 'em till I got sorta mixed up so I just drew a line right through the middle of all of 'em. There was sentences to write YES and NO after: sentences like this: - a carpenter builds houses. I wrote NO, because my old man's a carpenter and he ain't built a house in four years. He's working on the railroad track. The boy that sat next to me put NO on every other sentence and then filled the rest up with YES. He got a swell mark. I read so slow I only got four done before the time was up. I get so tired of bein' hurried up all the time.

A Tree, a Fish, a Cake of Ice. -- Look at this. It was so funny I tore out the page and kept it. See three pictures - a tree - a fish and a cake of ice. I'll read what it tells you to do. 'John is ten years old and his sister Mary is eight. If John and Mary are twins, write your middle name under the tree and if you have no middle name put zero there. If they are not twins print your last name on the tree. If Mary is younger than John write the Roman number eight in the upper left hand corner of the paper, but if John is older than Mary draw a cat in the lower right-hand corner. If they both go to school write your full name at the bottom of the paper.' I'm never sure just how to spell my name, so I didn't even try this one.

Miss Brown didn't like it because I always asked a lotta questions. She thought I was bein' fresh and I wasn't. There's a lotta things I want to know about. I never got mad when she asked me questions all the time. I answered 'em. I've got lots of answers - but they always seem to fit the wrong questions. Anyway, everything is changin' all the time, so what's the use of learnin' a lotta things today when maybe they won't even be true by tomorrow? -- I know heaps of things Miss Brown don't know -- like where to find birds' nests and how to fix a leaky pipe and what the baseball scores are. She has to send for the janitor when the lights go out or a window shade tears. I can do lots of things if I don't have to read how in a book first.

Sure, I'm glad I'm in the special class. I get lots more attention. Seems like if you're awful smart or awful dumb they do a lot for you in school, but if you're what they call "normal" they just leave you set. I heard the school psychologist; that's a man that comes in just before promotion time and tells the teachers why they're not promotin' us; he told Miss Brown it was on account of my grandfather and the rest of my ancestors. She said, wasn't it kinda late to do anything about that now, and he said it was, but I must have the proper trainin' so I'd be a good ancestor. Gosh, I don't want to be no ancestor. I'm goin' to be a plumber."

* *

Arnold Toynbee, one of England's notable social philosophers, once talked on the question, "What will this century be known for? What should be its greatest achievement? Would it be flight? What about splitting the atom? Could it be known as the century of man's inhumanity to man with the prison camp atrocities during the world wars, the atomic bombs?" His answer was: "In this century, the common man took it as his birthright that all his God-given rights were to be developed to their fullest."

How do we relate this concept to the role of the counselor and to your role as basic education teacher-trainees? We know our society is very quickly getting used to the electronic computer --

-----Our paychecks are written by computers.
-----Our checking accounts are controlled by computers.
-----Our national census is digested by computers.
-----The internal revenue service has already assigned people numbers.
-----Our social security payments are issued by computers.
-----Our insurance policies are monitored by computers.
-----There is discussion now in the Office of Emergency Planning which contemplates assigning numbers to babies prior to birth.

Computers and computer technology are with us in our every-day lives. They will be close to us all of our lives. It behooves each of us to make the most of them. When I think of all the things that machines can do, I am reminded of Satchel Page's comment in his book, Advice to Lefthanded Pitchers and Some Shortstops. Satchel says, "Don't ever stop and look behind; something back there may be gaining on you."

It is essential to each of us to become educated, to learn systematically what is now known and to build a solid foundation of understanding on the present. Such a goal, however, is not an end, but a means to the end of creating the new and of being oneself.

----To understand the present and to be dissatisfied with it enough to change it,
----To live as a member of society and yet,
----To develop one's own pattern of being, is to complete the process of which our present knowledge and education are but introductory steps.

When we work with adults, we need to remember: "A wise man acknowledges his mistakes; a fool defends his."

In other words, to learn to live intelligently in the present and cooperatively within the group on the one hand; to create the new for the future and to risk being different on the other hand, are the responsibilities of each of us as educators in today's society. A person who is content and comfortable with only what he learns in school can be likened to a man riding a bicycle on a crowded expressway where the minimum speed limit is 40 miles per hour. Sometimes he is going to get hurt. We must continue to learn if we are to grow.

Pascal once said: "That which is known is like a circle pushing against the unknown. The larger the circle of knowledge, the greater the awareness of the unknown." Such an awareness may at times be so overwhelming that we must rush back to the center of the circle as it was to reassure ourselves, and to gain courage enough to face outward once more toward the ever-widening perimeter of the unknown which is gradually becoming known.

What are some of the new things, now becoming known in our changing world, that may affect each one of us? Let's consider some of the topics of our own changing society:

----the pressure of population.
----the ever-changing job picture for the future.
----the changing family pattern.
----the problems of living together in metropolitan areas.
----the individual's growth and wealth.
----the changing impact of federal government.
----the ever-present world next door.

When I question these unknowns, I'm reminded of a comment made by Louis Armstrong when he was asked the question, "What is Jazz?" Satchmo's classic answer, as some of you may recall, was; "Daddy, if you got to ask, you'll never know."

What meaning do all of these changes have for us as educators in a changing world? Probably the most vivid change of which many should be aware is the distance between a so-called "comfort ratio" of the increased millions in the United States and that of the increased billions in the rest of the world.

We are currently the ultimate among the nations having the comforts of life and the gap between us and the have-not people is likely to increase. It is even now a very critical gap. Mathematician J. D. Williams of California Institute of Technology describes this gap in the following manner: the earth is pictured as a partially flooded cellar 25' x 25' with about one-fourth of the floor dry. The American enjoys the use of a 6' x 2' dry spot but there are 15 other inhabitants of the cellar, all armed and two-thirds of them incredibly poor and hungry. The American has about half of the food and other goodies in the cellar and has his attention fixed on these. He is not particularly aware of the other 15 inhabitants, of their aims or of their hunger because he is not aware of the fact that his geographic isolation has vanished. He still thinks of himself as occupying a distant part of limitless earth although in reality he is right in the middle of a very limited cellar. I fear that we may have learned how to destroy each other before we have learned how to live with each other.

One cannot learn by authority but only by experience and unless we learn to like each other before our mutual feeling of distrust results in action, we are lost. We need to look to education in its broad sense, we need to look to creative people able to continue to inhabit the earth. All that is not to deny the importance of inherited factors, but to doubt inherited attitudes. The most important social factor for the very young child is his parents and the other members of his family. Always remember the same fire that melts wax will harden steel. A person is bent by certain forces in his society: TV, movies, radio, playmates, friends, the church...all of these contribute to the make-up of each human being.

I'm reminded of the story of a husband and wife who were discussing a remote spot on earth. Their discussion became a little heated. So to answer their question the husband went into his small son's room to pick up the globe. As he was carrying the globe out of the room very quietly so as not to wake his son, a small voice came to him from the dark room saying, "Daddy, what are you planning to do with my world?"

How would each one of you been able to answer that question? At one time or another, each of you will be confronted with this question, if not by your own children, by someone near and dear to you. I would sincerely hope that each of you will be able to give the right answer to this question when it is asked.

Let me share with you five guidelines for Finding Your Role in our Changing World.

1. Believe in Yourself

----Believe in the worth inherent in yourself as an individual, in your capacity for growth and change, and your ability to cope with life situations.
----Have confidence in your capacity to establish appropriate values and goals.
----Believe that under favorable conditions you can develop in directions beneficial to yourself and to society.

2. Develop a Commitment to Individual Human Values

----Develop a primary concern for other individuals as people whose feelings, values, goals, and success are important.
----Respect and appreciate individuality including the right and need of others to find their own best values, to determine their own goals and to find ways to achieve these goals.
----Be concerned with facilitating this process in a manner that is helpful to yourself, to others, and to society.

3. Develop an Alertness to the World

----Be interested in the world.
----Develop an interest in understanding man, the forces which affect his goals, and his progress in achieving these goals.
----Be a person for whom the strivings, the achievements, and the creations of mankind have meaning and add richness to life.

4. Strive Toward Open-Mindedness

----Have respect for a wide range of interests, attitudes, and beliefs.
----Be willing to question the old and investigate the new.
----Be receptive to new ideas, achievements, and research findings.
----Always be eager to step beyond our present knowledge and share your discoveries with your fellow man.

5. Search for a Better Understanding of Yourself

----You need an understanding of yourself and the ways in which your personal values, feelings, and needs can affect others.
----Be able to handle these aspects of your own life in ways that do not have an adverse effect upon other persons.
----Have a recognition of your own limitations and be able to make judgements as to when your limitations require help from others better able to assist you to know yourself.

As I've been talking, I've tried to relate my thought to counselors and teachers working toward the same goal, serving and counseling all students, whether they are "teen" or adult students.

There is an increasing awareness that teachers and counselors are involved in the same process, that of assisting each person to develop:

1. Meaningful values.
2. Realistic goals that are appropriate to himself and to society.
3. Sensitivity to and awareness of the factors that affect his behavior and learning.

4. Realistic attitudes toward himself and others.
5. Insight into his potential for growth and achievement.
6. Self-discipline by the assumption of responsibility for his own behavior.
7. Skills and attitudes that will enable him to achieve his goals.

Aware of the complementary nature of their roles, classroom teachers and school counselors are joining force to improve their individual and combined contributions to the development of the nation's students. However, because deterrents to full efficiency are sometimes encountered in this alliance, let's re-examine the respective positions of teachers and counselors. Perhaps new directions are needed to improve the educational enterprise of which they are such an important part.

Let us remember that basic to the vitality of any team relationship are four requisites: communication, understanding, confidence, cooperation, and they are important in that order! The spirit of cooperation cannot exist without mutual confidence. Both are jeopardized by lack of understanding of the functions to be performed by each member of the team. Such lack results frequently from ineffective or inadequate communication.

Communication is a mutual responsibility. In the interests of reciprocal understanding and support, teachers and counselors must jointly seek to establish effective communications with each other. They themselves are best able to translate their respective roles, to articulate their objectives, and to determine areas of related responsibility.

The following suggestions to each are presented in the hope that they will contribute to better communication between teachers and counselors, better understanding of their respective roles, a higher level of mutual confidence, and to more effective cooperation between them. Each of you is urged to adopt and adapt them.

TO COUNSELORS:

1. Define their professional role clearly to teachers, administrators, students, and parents. If they are uncertain of it, others are sure to be. Study and make use of the publications of their professional organization in accomplishing this objective, adapting them to their local situation.
2. Invite concerned teachers to participate in case conferences when appropriate. Make known the assistance that is available from other specialists and agencies.
3. To facilitate instructional planning, avoid taking students out of an instructional period whenever an alternative is available. Publish testing and interview schedules in advance, and notify teachers early enough about anticipated pupil absences from class to allow them to suggest alternatives. Remember, classroom instruction is the heart of the educational program.

4. Provide adequate interpretation of test results, directing these results to possible teacher uses.
5. Invite teachers to assist them in determining the appropriate content and nature of guidance services.
6. Be receptive to suggestions about strengthening the guidance program. Inform teachers of the accomplishments that have resulted from their contributions.
7. Within the limitations of confidentiality, inform teachers concerning the progress and outcomes of counseling conferences with students. Acknowledge their referrals.
8. Apprise teachers when they may expect classroom reactions from troubled students. Delineate possible teacher services to assist these students. Then give them every support.
9. Provide up-to-date educational and occupational materials for use by teachers.
10. Publish a regular newsletter to staff members.
11. Talk positively about teachers to students, parents, and other staff members. Remember, to do the most effective kind of teaching, teachers need counselors' support! Help them to build a positive image of their role.

TO TEACHERS:

1. You are in a singular position to detect, forsee, and to observe the development of student needs.
2. Familiarize yourself with your students and broaden your vision of their potential, their needs, and their achievements through use of counselor records and services.
3. Prior to referring a student, brief the counselor so that he can be more adequately prepared to meet the student's needs.
4. Invite counselors to observe students in classes.
5. Although playing the role of confidante to a troubled student may appeal to you, remember that personal counseling carries with it a great measure of personal responsibility. Appraise honestly your qualifications and your willingness to accept it.
6. Your counselor shares your conviction that each student, regardless of individual differences, is worthy of acceptance and an opportunity to grow.
7. Direct your questions about guidance services or actions taken by counselors, first to the counselors, not to the administration.
8. Accept graciously an occasional inconvenience when a counselor schedules a conference with a student during your class period.
9. Use occupational and educational information to relate your subject matter to career areas, to advanced areas of study, and to the reality of the student's world as well as the world in which he will live and earn his living in the future.
10. Talk positively about counseling and related guidance services to students, parents, and other staff members. Remember that to succeed, counselors need your support! Help them to build

a positive image of their roles.

TO BOTH TEACHERS AND COUNSELORS:

The cooperative task of assisting students is enhanced when both teacher and counselor realize that:

1. The goals of effective teaching and counseling are congruent with each other.
2. Each has a significant contribution to make to the maturation of your people.
3. Teachers and counselors must be sensitive to the common elements in their respective roles.
4. The effectiveness of each is enhanced by a respect for and an understanding of the professional competence and contributions of the other.
5. The principles of effective communication must be applied in the process of communicating with each other, as well as with students.
6. The degree to which teaching and counseling have value to students is proportionate to the extent to which teachers and counselors coordinate their efforts.
7. Joint in-service programs promote better understanding of the program, objectives, and activities.

Teachers and counselors realize that they share certain common goals in the process of assisting students. A student with problems needs the professional services of both teacher and counselor. An awareness of this fact should enable both teachers and counselors to appreciate the contributions that each can make to the lives of young people, and to realize that increased benefits will accrue to the student when teaching and counseling have become complementary to each other in the educational program of every community in the nation. History will bear me out on this fact.

In Bertrand Russell's book, The Impact of Science on Society, he says, "Good knowledge is power, but it is power for evil just as much as for good. It follows that, unless men increase in wisdom as much as in knowledge, the increase of knowledge will be the increase of sorrow."

Carl Ziemer's book Education for Death, tells how Hitler used his educational system to meet his own ends. If we study the Russian system, we find the same purpose, but in a different format.

Most foreign countries limit their children as to the amount of education each can obtain, but, in our educational system, we believe in the right of each person continuing their education until they decide that it would no longer be advantageous. Through education,one finds his place in the world of work. In turn, man must take pride in his choice of work.

No one has said this better than Kahlil Gibran in his book, The Prophet, from which I would like to quote,

> "You work that you may keep pace with the earth and with the soul of the earth, for to be out of pace with it is to become a stranger under the season and to step out of life's procession that marches in majesty and proud submission toward the infinite. Earlier you may have been told that work is a curse and labor is misfortune. But I say to you that from work you fulfill a kind of earth's fullest dream assigned to you when that dream was born and in keeping your self with labor you are truly loving life, and to love life through labor is to be intimate with life's innermost secrets."
>
> "You have been told also that life is darkness and in your worriness you echo what is said by worry. But I say unto you that all work is empty save where there is love and when you work with love you bind yourself unto yourself and to one another and to God and what is it to work with love, it is to weave the clouds with threads drawn from your own heart even as if your own beloved would dwell in that house. It is to sow the seed with tenderness and reap the harvest with joy even if your own beloved were to eat that food. It is to change all things that you fashion from the work of your own spirit. Work is love made visible. And if you cannot work with love but only with distaste, it is better that you should leave your work and sit at the gate of the temple and take alms of those who work with joy. For if you bake bread with indifference, you bake a bitter bread that feeds -- but half a man's hunger."

And each one of our students deserve better than bitter bread.

THE LESSONS OF HISTORY

Somebody once asked Charles A. Beard, a famous historian, if he couldn't somehow summarize the great lessons of history in a single volume, which an ordinary person could read without too much effort. "I can do it in four sentences," he replied:

1. Whom the gods would destroy, they first make mad with power.

2. The mills of the gods grind slowly, but they grind exceeding small.

3. The bee fertilizes the flower it robs.

4. When it is dark enough, you can see the stars.

STRATEGIES AND SUGGESTIONS FOR TRAINING NON-PROFESSIONALS

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Approximately twenty-four thousand indigenous non-professionals have been employed throughout the United States as a result of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. The major job types include: ex peditors, whose function is to link services and people more efficiently; mediate between the client and public and private agencies; direct service agents such as homemakers, teacher aids, mental health aides; community organizers of neighborhood workers whose function is to involve the residents of the area in community planning and community action.

Non-professionals are being utilized in a number of different structures. One major model is the Neighborhood Service Center. This may be a storefront, employing 5 to 10 non-professionals with one or two supervisors (the pattern at the Lincoln Project), or the larger multi-service neighborhood centers which may include anywhere from 30 to 200 non-professionals with a professional staff of 5 to 30 supervisors.

This model is characterized by a high ratio of non-professionals (NP) to professionals and a base of operation in the community, on the home turf, so the speak, of the non-professional. The character of the involvement of the NP is likely to be quite different from the second model. Here the NP is attached to a service agency, such as the Welfare Department or the Health Department. He is not in the majority and his base of operations is not in the community, but rather in the agency itself. Some of these agencies may be committed to an ideology emphasizing the value and significant new role of the NP, but in other cases they may simply be utilizing the new manpower because of the assistance it provides to professionals or because funding was available for NP positions.

Thus, the variables to be considered are: the ratio of professional to non-professionals; the base of operation, whether it be in the community or in the traditional agency; and the ideology or lack of it connected to the utilization of this new type of personnel. Training and supervisory staff should consider these three dimensions as they have implications for training methodology and supervision and for the development of the non-professional, the role he can play, his participation, and his power.

Portrait of the Non-Professional

Frequently, professionals assume the NP's identify with the poor and possess great warmth and feeling for the neighborhood of their origin. While many NP's exhibit some of these characteristics, they simultaneously possess a number of other characteristics. Often they see themselves as quite different from the other members of the poor community whom they may view with pity, annoyance, or anger. Nevertheless, they have considerable knowledge of the neighborhood and its traditions and they communicate easily with many different types of people in the area. They both literally and figuratively talk the language of the poor and have some similarities in style, values, and traditions. In addition, NP's have a good deal of neighborhood know-how, savvy, and understanding. They are particularly good at functioning and communicating on an informal level. They know the hidden assumptions of the neighborhood, but it should not be assumed that they are always going to be friendly, cooperative, "concerned," or any of the romantic myths about the poor, Moreover, there are many different "types" of non-professionals: some are earthy, some are tough, some are angry, some are surprisingly articulate, some are slick, clever wheeler-dealers, and nearly all are greatly concerned about their new roles and their relationship to professionals.

It is most important to note then that NP's are frequently quite competitive with professionals. In essence, many NP's think they are different from the poor and would be more effective than professionals if they had a chance. They are aware of the new ideology regarding non-professionals which calls attention to the special properties (style, etc.) which enable the NP to communicate with the low-income community in an effective manner. They feel this gives them something of an edge over professionals, and when combined with the training and knowledge they are acquiring in the professional structure, they will be doubly "smart." They will incorporate the intelligence based on their history with the new knowledge based on their training. It is not at all unusual to find a non-professional who has imaginatively combined these two levels and is remarkably effective in dealing with problems at various levels.

While non-professionals may be selected because of certain characteristics they possess such as informality, humor, earthiness, neighborliness - in other words some of the "positive" characteristics of the resident population - the other side of the coin cannot be ignored. That is, they may possess characteristics of low-income populations that interfere with effective helper roles. For example, they may possess considerable moral indignation, punitiveness, or they may be so open and friendly on occasion that the significance of confidentiality escapes them. Thus, while the training staff will want to build on their positive helping traits and potential skills, to some extent there must be an effort to either train out or control some of these other negative characteristics (negative in playing the helping role in a social service frame-work). In addition, it should be remembered that we are probably not selecting a representative "lower class" population but in all likelihood are selecting "bridge" people who can communicate with both class groups (the low-income group and our own middle-class population.) The non-professional population probably has considerably more ambition, drive, envy, and less identification with the poor. It is, of course, possible to possess simultaneously some of these traits which appear to be mutually exclusive.

Role Ambiguity: Who Am I?

One of the greatest problems experienced by the non-professional is role ambiguity or lack of role identity: That is he doesn't know who he is or who he is becoming. He is no longer a simple member of the community if he ever was one, nor is he a professional. Actually, he is a highly marginal person just as the New Community Action (CAP) programs he represents are also highly marginal and lacking in a clear identity. The CAP's represent neither fully the community of the poor nor the traditional public and private agencies. They are a new third-party group directed toward developing the demand of the poor and assisting the agencies to respond to this demand more effectively. Likewise, the CAP's major new representative, the non-professional, is also involved in a similar objective. He may represent the poor, but he is not the poor. He uses his knowledge, his history, his past to bring a new voice of the poor into the system; but he too is now in the system. And he must be able to communicate and assist the professionals in his agency and in other agencies with whom he has relationships. There are necessary strains in this new role and they must be accepted openly and dealt with. In the pre-job training phase this new role should be defined from the beginning, but it will have little meaning to the non-professional except as a broad orientation base, until he is faced by the role conflicts in practice - until the members of the community begin to see him as a "fink" because he does not completely represent them and is not completely of them anymore, or until he is criticized as a "hot head" in relation to other agencies with whom he is working. For example: One of the aides at the Lincoln Project in speaking to a Welfare Department investigator about a client, was asked who she was. The aide was annoyed and responded: "It does not matter who I am; my client is in great need, let's talk about that." She was acting as she previously had acted as a neighbor or friend, angrily demanding the assistance of the agency, but this was an incorrect posture in her new role in relation to the Welfare Department and she was not accurately representing the stance of the Neighborhood Service Center Program. It is only through discussing this type of case that her own identity in relation to the non-professional role can begin to be clarified. But this is a long process and constantly fraught with strain and difficulty.

Thus, the role ambiguity relates to different aspects of the situation. One is the stance of the agency and the relationship of the non-professional to the community and to the agency world. Another source of role confusion relates to the marginality of the non-prefessionals; position; i.e., "non-professional" describes what he is not, but does not clearly indicate what he is. He is neither a citizen nor a volunteer participating in the organization although the desire to have him represent the feelings of the neighborhood produces some similarity with the citizen advisory board role of the local resident. He is not the traditional kind of employee because his participation and neighborhood know-how and advice are sought; yet he is also an employee. He is not a professional, even though he does represent the agency and many people see the aide as a new kind of social worker. He is not a political action organizer even though he does develop groups in the community concerned with various types of change. He is an amalgam of all these various roles and his trainers and the leaders of the community action programs must understand and try to clarify this new role. But to repeat, the role itself has strains and contradictions and the non-professional must be assisted to live within the framework of these dilemmas. He is the new marginal man. He must be selected with this in mind, trained and supervised in this fashion, and assisted in forging this new role.

Finally, the ambiguity is also related to the unclarity of goals and programs in the rapidly developing CAP's. The newness of the program itself, the vagueness of many of its goals, and the fact that the task for non-professionals are only beginning to be defined, contribute to the total atmosphere of amorphousness, and produce confusion and anxiety. The program is new, the jobs are new, and the personnel are new. Clearly, flexible and innovative supervisors and trainers are required to function in this difficult, rapidly evolving situation. All staff members, supervisory and NP's should be made honestly aware of the character of the situation; that is, the fact that it is rapidly changing and not highly structured and traditional. Some tolerance has to be built up for this climate and some structure has to be provided as quickly as possible. To some extent, structure can be achieved by attempting to define as specifically as possible, the overall job category. (That is, whether it is expediter, community worker, or direct service agent). In addition, the job function should be provided in as much detail as possible without sounding over-whelming.

Phased Training

The relationship of training to job performance for the non-professional is different than it is for other types of employees. Perhaps the main reason for this is the general lack of skill possessed by the non-professional and more particularly, the lack of certain requisite skills for the new jobs. The problem is heightened by the ambiguity of the new NP roles and lack of development of many of the community action programs. Many of these programs are being developed simultaneously with the training and the development of the NP. This situation, however, can be used to advantage as will be seen below.

Before planning a specific training program it is necessary to determine priorities; that is, the minimum knowledge that is needed quickly in order to perform on the job. Every effort should be made to avoid imposing too much information on the NP too quickly, lest we clutter his mind, disorganize him and make him too anxious.

It has become axiomatic that most of the training of the NP will take place on the job. This requires that job functions be phased in slowly and that the aides receive ample time to master the required tasks at each stage before going on to more advanced tasks. For example, in Phase I of the Lincoln Project, the Mental Health Aide is expected to know how to do simple expedition; this requires a knowledge of the various agencies and how to contact them, interviewing skills related to obtaining information, and placing the client at ease, knowing how to give information and judging when to request supervision and assistance. In the second phase of the Lincoln Project, NP's are expected to learn how to conduct meetings and develop groups, committees and campaigns e.g. (voter registration). They are also expected to improve their expediting and interviewing skills, to become more proficient at observing and assessing behavior, and judge when information is relevant and important and to deepen their skills in recording, filing and report writing. In a later phase they are expected to develop organizational skills, learn how to spot volunteers and develop leadership, to do some simple counseling and to develop and deepen their group skills.

The Pre-Job Stage

Pre-job training (to be distinguished from core training or the training in basic knowledge which can take place throughout the job program), should be oriented primarily to enabling the NP to perform the simplest entry features of the job in a fairly adequate fashion. Moreover, the job itself must be broken down and phased in so that in the initial stage the NP will be required to perform only limited aspects of the job itself. Thus, in interviewing a client who has been having difficulty obtaining welfare, the aide must know how to obtain information, how to contact the Welfare Department to inform them of the situation, and how to make a simple record of this transaction; following forms which should be especially developed for this purpose. The NP should not be expected to assess or evaluate why the client hasn't appeared for welfare before, what his other problems may be, how to plan to assist the client in a general way, or how to influence a resistant welfare investigator. These points will be learned on the job itself, through on-the-job training and specialized systematic training to be introduced at a later time. Hence, the pre-service training is directed toward developing primary skills, agency orientation, and providing considerable support and structure.

Aside from providing general orientation regarding the agency and its stance and goals, the pre-service period should teach quite directly, in non-didactic fashion, the necessary preliminary skills. This can be done through the use of cases, role-playing, anecdotes, job simulation. Role-playing, interviewing of a client, phoning an agency, making a home visit, talking to a supervisor are illustrative here. Particular attention must be given to teaching simple recording skills because these are most lacking in the population in question.

The pre-service period should be short lest anxiety be built up and the aide become threatened by the anticipated job. The learning should be active, the Aids should be doing things and knowledge and concepts should be brought in around the discussion of his activities.

As quickly as possible the aide should be placed on the job itself for a part of the day under close professional supervision. The sooner the aides can get their feet wet, the better they will feel. Thus, in the Lincoln Project, the aides were placed on the job in the Neighborhood Service Center for one-half a day in this pre-job period (after a three-week period spent in job simulation practice, etc.) The half-day in which they were not working was utilized to discuss the specific experiences they were having.

Beyond this point, the really significant training and learning will occur on the job itself and in carefully planned discussion about the work they are doing. It is not to be assumed, unlike many other positions, that the NP knows his job when he begins it. Rather in the early stages of this on-the-job experience, he is actually involved in continuous training and the first job operations are really to be considered preliminary aspects of the position that he will ultimately fulfill. He is really still in training on-the-job itself.

On-the-Job Training

On-the-job training, then, becomes decisive and different types of on-the-job training should be considered. The aides will learn from simply performing some of the tasks, that is, they will learn from their own experience; the aides will learn from each other (utilizing peer learning and the helper principle); the aides will learn from their supervisor who will support them and correct their mistakes and provide assistance at any time on request. The aides will also learn from a special series of group meetings that can be held. One such group can be concerned with systematic training introducing, for example, further skills in interviewing. There can also be group discussions about general problems being experiences: on-th-job problems with the professionals, problems with other agencies, and problems stemming from competition with each other or annoyance with the type of supervision they are receiving. These discussions should be task-centered with personality and individual components coming in as relevant (the traditional sensitivity training, T-group, experience seem to require considerable modification if it is to be used with the non-professional population.)

Another very significant type of informal training can be developed as the program of the agency moves forward. In the Lincoln NSC program the initial phase was concerned with providing and expediting service. After a number of months, the program moved toward the development of groups, committees, community action, campaigns (voter registration, etc.). At this point, the program had to be discussed with the aides and this provided an excellent opportunity for the introduction of new training with regard to concepts and skills. Thus, in order to involve clients in a community meeting, it was necessary to discuss with the aides plans for calling such a meeting, how to conduct the meeting, how to bring the client population to the meeting, how to develop committees, and so on.

The need for the new skills is introduced as the initial tasks are mastered and the program moves forward. The new skills are introduced functionally. At the point when the NSC is ready to call a community meeting, the need for skills related to conducting the meeting is likely to be highest.

The discussion, which was program centered, for the most part, brought in training in what might be described as an informal but highly functional fashion. But it is exactly in this fashion that the aides seemed to learn best. They needed to know how to conduct a meeting, develop participation in committees, etc., and consequently their motivation was high and the learning was sensitive and highly directed. Moreover, issues about how fast can we move, what kinds of action can we take, what is our relationship to the community became commonplace discussion and the concepts and goals of the program were easily introduced in this context. For example, one of the aides asked why couldn't we use an Alinsky Type Two program approach. Other aides suggested that if we ever did, we wouldn't have our jobs long. The leader indicated that there were target populations among the poor whom the Alinsky groups did not influence easily, but that our agency, because of its legitimacy might be able to work with and involve in various types of non-militant activity. A great deal of excited discussion took place and apparently much concrete understanding regarding the agency's viewpoint emerged.

To take another example: At one of the community meetings that was called where over 100 people from the neighborhood attended, the combined enthusiasm of the aides who led the meeting and the client-citizens who attended it, went into the formation of eight different committees. In a discussion after the meeting the aides were able to understand fairly easily that they had really run ahead of themselves; that they had taken on more work than the agency could handle. Various methods for consolidating the committees and developing volunteers were then discussed in a highly meaningful fashion. Thus, the fact that the programs of the new Neighborhood Service Centers are not fully developed can be used to good advantage in the phasing of the training of the NP's. As these programs develop, new training appropriate to the program phase can be introduced and this is a most meaningful way for the aides to learn.

The Howard Program provides another illustration of functional learning. Initially the Research Aides in the Howard program interviewed each other with a tape recorder and learned only the simplest principles of interviewing in order to perform this task. Before long they recognized that they needed to know something about how to record this infromation and categorize it and later they needed some statistics in order to analyze it appropriately. As each of these needs became apparent, the appropriate training was introduced to develop the requisite skills. This can be done either formally or informally, through systematic in-service training and/or through informal discussions related to the problem. Similarly, in conducting a voter registration drive at the Lincoln Project, the community organizer taught the aides a number of organizational skills and attitudes quite informally in the process of working on the drive. This type of step-by-step learning, emerging out of the job needs, provides highly effective motivation for indigenous non-professionals. In fact, one of the most interesting sidelights connected to it is that the NP's do not even realize that they are receiving training.

To repeat: the task phasing has to be very carefully planned so that success in learning the requisite skills is guaranteed for the aide at each point or phase. If too much is required to early, the NP will experience the type of failure that he has experienced so many times before in school and in life.

How to Unify Training and Supervision

When possible, it seems useful to have one person responsible for selecting the aide (interviewing him either individually or in a group), training him and supervising him in the actual program. This was the model developed by Mary Dowery at the Mobilization for Youth Parent Education Program. It allowed for identification by the aides with one person and prevented the confusion that develops when there are multiple leaders. The limitations in this type of model relate to the fact that one person cannot encompass all the required skills that are to be imparted to the NP's. This difficulty can, to some degree, be minimized by introducing a number of different consultants as assistants to the trainer at various points. However, the trainer has to utilize this information selectively and interpret to the Aides what the consultant is offering. The consultant does not become the leader.

However, in the larger agency model, it will not be as easy for one person to play the multiple roles of selector, trainer, supervisor. For this model a number of adaptations are recommended.

Np's can be introduced in a circumscribed sphere of the agency in one department, for example, where the selection, training, and supervisory responsibilities are delegated to one person or to a team of two or three individuals working closely together.

Another possiblility is to permit professionals in the larger agency to volunteer to select and work with a NP assistant, in a sense, functioning as selector, trainer, and supervisor. While some general suggestions can be offered as to how the professionals might use the NP's; in general it would seem best at this stage to permit the professionals to define the assignments and working relationships. Some professionals will want the NP, at least at first, to do fairly menial tasks, simply serving as assistants. Others may suggest fairly early that NP's perform new and meaningful assignments, really discussing things with clients, for example, rather than merely serving as translators.

The professionals who self-select themselves might meet together from time to time with an individual in the organization or a consultant who has responsibility for the development of the use of NP's; this could be a trainer or other program developer. In these discussions, some of the experiences of the professionals would be exchanged and discussed, problems would be raised, and the specialist or consultant would offer advice, bring in experience from other settings, suggest problems that might arise, indicate different roles that NP's could play.

This way of involving professionals might be an excellent way in which to introduce the NP's into a particular institution, and establish the tradition of using non-professionals. The resistance on the part of the professionals who did not self-select themselves for working with non-professionals, exists; but after observing some of the initial (hopefully) positive experiences of the professionals, the pattern would probably be contagious. It should be especially valuable for the non-professional to work with the professional on a one-to-one basis initially, rather than being involved in a team in which the professionals were to be the majority.

In the multi-service centers where large numbers of NP's are to be employed, it will not be possible to integrate the selection, training, and supervisory functions in one individual or small team. Inevitably, strains will develop between the training and the on-the-job supervisory staff. These difficulties are likely to be exaggerated in the period in which the NSC program is as yet not fully formed and job functions are still unclear. The need for strong leadership from the overall Center director (or appropriate deputy) is paramount here. He must establish clear lines of authority and clearcut division of function between training and supervisory staff, and he must constantly seek articulation of the two functions. Moreover, he must see to it that the personnel department is recruiting and selecting trainable non-professionals who are capable of learning the necessary tasks.

SOME SPECIFIC RECOMMENDATIONS FOR TRAINING NON-PROFESSIONALS

1. Trainers should not expect or demand deep identification on the part of NP's with the poor and they should anticipate competitive feelings toward professionals (usually professionals other than themselves, but not always). Permit the airing of these feelings and be prepared to discuss them.

2. Provide constant support and assistance; be available for assistance at all times and make it clear that the NP can request it without any negative implications regarding his evaluation. On the other hand, provide the opportunity for considerable initiative and flexibility on the part of the NP. He wants both the flexibility and the support. He is a new kind of employee, and reflecting the developing anti-poverty idealogy, he wants more of a say, or at least wants to be consulted, regarding the operation of various programs and rules.

3. Make the obtaining of the job as easy and simple and short as possible. Every effort should be made to reduce competitive feelings the aides may develop in relation to other candidates for the position. Long delays between the original time of the job application and the later interviews or job selection are likely to produce considerable anxiety for the candidate. The attitude may be carried over in the training and on the job itself, thus producing competitive difficulties with other aides and anger toward the program and the staff.

4. There appears to be some male-female differences in the interest and the job functions preferred by the aides. Women appear to be much more at home in direct one-to-one helping and interviewing, functioning as teacher aide and mental health aide. Males seem more interested in community organization, developing groups functioning in the community, on the streets. We are not suggesting that these preferences be completely accepted and men and women assigned accordingly, but consideration should be given to the preference and feelings of the individuals. And some anticipation of these differences may be useful in developing training and job assignments. (we hasten to add, however, that in the Howard University Community Project, the males apparently became excellent pre-school aides and preferred this assignment.)

5. The group interview can be used very successfully in selecting applicants. Aside from the fact that it is economical in time, the group process permits the selector to observe how the candidate relates to other people in a group; who influences whom; who listens; who is sensitive; who is overwhelmed by group pressure;

who has leadership potential, etc. It is also possible to produce an excellent group atmosphere and develop the beginnings of later comraderie, esprit-de-corps, group feeling, teamwork, etc. The danger, however, lies in the competitive setting in which the applicants observe that they have to compete against others for a limited number of jobs.

The competitive troubles can be reduced by establishing an informal friendly setting; coffee and cake should be supplied from the beginning even before the group forms and starts to talk. A leisurely pace of discussion can be established by the leader or the co-leader. Everybody should be introduced. Plenty of time for warming-up should be available. The group should be no larger than ten people and should be sitting fairly close together in a circle or around a table. But the selectors must make perfectly clear that evaluation is taking place and that it will be difficult to assess people unless they participate and have something to say. Otherwise, "quiet ones" will be penalized by this group selection process. The group session itself should stress interaction and not go around the circle having each person announce his interests or goals.

6. Non-professionals frequently expect magic from the training process; that is, they expect to learn how to do everything they are supposed to do quite perfectly. To the degree that this is not achieved, they blame the training process. To some extent, this reflects a naive view about training, education, and learning. The training staff should be aware that it probably will receive this reaction and insofar as possible should try to explain to the trainees that many dimensions of the job will take some time to learn fully in practice. Fundamentally, the trainees' reaction reflects their anxiety about the new job and role and this has to be dealt with in other ways as indicated below. Trainers also sometimes expect too much from the training; sometimes their expectations of NP's are initially too high and their appraisal of adequate progress is based on experience with more trained, experienced professional learners. While NP's have some surprising knowledge and understanding of a variety of issues, there are areas of their knowledge which are unbelievable. They often have great gaps in their knowledge or know-how about the system; how to fill out forms, how to make outlines, how to take tests, how to read effectively. Because they are frequently very sensitive and bright in their understanding people and the neighborhood, the tendency (in halo fashion) is to assume that their understanding is equally good in areas removed from their previous experience. Thus, it is a shock to discover that a NP who has conducted an excellent interview with a client, writes it up very inadequately. Constant training and emphasis must be built in to improve the report writing skill, filling out forms, etc.

7. Non-professionals have quickly learned that part of the ideology of the anti-poverty movement is directed toward developing, not merely jobs for NP's but career lines as well. It is, therefore, extremely important that the agency establish these lines so that there can be aides, assistants, associates, supervisory positions and possibly assistant neighborhood service center director positions available to the NP through career development and education. The training staff must clarify these career lines indicating the relationship of education to them and further indicating time involved before individuals can expect to "move up." If this is not done appropriately, aspirations may develop very rapidly and may outstrip possibilities.

8. The aides should be encouraged as soon as possible to form their own groups or unions which can meet outside of the job. (We would predict that organization and unionization of the aides will progress fairly rapidly in the coming period.) Aides at Harlem Hospital have been encouraged to meet by themselves, but these meetings have been recorded and utilized by the research staff there. The meetings were carried on within the context of the job itself, on the premises so to speak. The Lincoln Aides and the Howard Aides met independently on their own time and not under the surveillance or immediate stimulation of their professional supervisors. These groups are probably more significant than any of the groups that we make an effort to develop on the job itself in order to increase esprit-de-corps, teamwork, cooperation, etc. These on-the-job groups are too much under the control of the professional agency. The off-the-job groups are very important in developing the power of the aides, a feeling of identification as a group and should contribute greatly to the formation of role identity and job identity. In the Lincoln Project, these group meetings led to the development of leadership among the aides, powerful group identity vis-a-vis the professionals on the staff, and to the raising of a number of highly significant demands: the demand for greater participation in certain aspects of decision making of the organization (this was not an unlimited demand for participation on all decisions) the demand for closer supervision and periodic discussions with the leaders of the program; the curtailment of T-groups, (sensitivity training groups which were highly unpopular among the aides); the demand for career lines to be developed so that NP's could move up the ladder--the associated demand for education to be provided by the Yeshiva University of which the Lincoln Project is a part; the demand that if volunteers were to be used, they would be carefully trained; the demand for a greater voice in the selection of the delegates to the local Anti-Poverty Community Convention.

9. While much emphasis has been placed on the use of group procedures in training, it should be noted that a great deal of deep learning develops on a one-to-one identification basis. Bank Street College's

summer experiment in which each teacher worked one hour per day with one student found this one of the most effective learning devices. And Mobilization for Youth's homework helper program in which one high school youngster worked with one elementary school student, also supports the value of the one-to-one relationship. This principle can be utilized at any number of points in the training design. As noted above, individual aides can be assigned to professionals in the agency who select themselves for this purpose and volunteer to develop a NP assistant. We have also found that it is possible to use experienced, trained NP's to assist in one-to-one work with new trainees; that is, for a period during the day a new trainee can be assigned to work along side of an employed NP. This has to be done selectively or else we will have the situation that Mel Roman describes as the "blind leading the blind." But when it is done carefully and supervised thoroughly, there exists the possibility of utilizing the full advantages of peer learning. Many different studies have noted that peers learn from each other in very different ways, and sometimes much more fully than they learn from "superior" teachers. In addition, the helper principle notes that the peer teacher learns enormously from imparting information to the trainee; that is, he learns from teaching (See: "The Helper Therapy Principle" by Frank Riessman, Social Work, April, 1965).

10. While a certain degree of anxiety is useful in stimulating learning, the NP is probably faced by far too much anxiety due to her role ambiguity and the total program ambiguity. Hence, every effort should be made to reduce the anxiety level. This can be achieved by: careful phasing of tasks, (not demanding too much too fast), defining the job as carefully as possible, developing group support, providing specific training and evaluation, and holding frank discussions of program and role difficulties. We suspect that the NP's anxiety tolerance is not high and that a learning style that utilizes anxiety stimulation is not characteristic of this population.

11. Many professionals express great concern about NP's losing their community ties, their feeling for the neighborhood and their identification with "the people." This is based on the obvious fact that non-professionals are no longer simple members of the community, but are now employed by an agency. Moreover, since career lines may develop, the NP's can anticipate moving up the ladder and, in some cases, becoming professional.

The issue is not whether the NP identifies with the poor or not; but rather whether he remains committed to them. (Many professionals are committed to the poor without, in any way, identifying with this population.) What the Anti-Poverty Program needs from the indigenous non-professional is his knowledge, his ability to communicate with the poor and his commitment It does not need his identification with the poor.

Actually, it generally takes people a long time to lose their knowledge and understnnding of the ways, traditions, style, and language of their origin. And if they initially have some commitment, the concern will not fall away over night. Thus, the commitment and knowledge can remain even if immediate identification diminishes. Moreover, commitment can be maintained by the reinforcement of it by the agency and the training staff. In other words, to the extent that the agency reflects the developing positive anti-poverty ideology, it can reinforce and reward at every turn the NP's concern for his neighborhood and the poor. The training staff can be critical of any tendency on the part of the agency or with professionals. In other words, it is possible for NP's to develop new identification; at the same time maintaining traditional commitments. In fact, these commitments can be deepened by new systematic understanding regarding the nature of poverty. It is in this context that continuous training can perhaps provide its greatest contribution to the NP and the Anti-Poverty Program.

TRAINING THEORY AND DESIGN AS RELATED TO TEACHER TRAINING IN ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

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The development of individuals to perform tasks, or to improve their performance, needs to be seen as an organized process. The ultimate purpose of training is some modification of the behavior of an individual. There are those who dislike the idea that they are influencing the behavior of others, yet such influencing is a constant factor in all societies. Man must constantly change as his environment changes - he must learn to adapt, and this very process can happen accidentally or can be planned. In developing manpower for human services in the war on poverty we cannot allow it to be accidental for this is too much of a luxury. The changes must be carefully planned - training must be organized and directed.

Training can have many definitions. For purposes of this paper it is seen as the process by which 1) the behavior of an individual is changed, 2) over a given period of time and 3) is measurable. Behavior can be manifested in what an individual does, but his thought processes and value systems are also part of his behavior and therefore are part of the training picture.

A basic concept of any learning situation is that the process becomes more meaningful when the learner is involved in his own learning. The process of training should not be smothered in mystique. The trainer and trainee should jointly be involved in the entire process. The degree of involvement which naturally differ, and what each brings to the process will vary greatly. However, training should not be a one-way process, or something somebody does to somebody else. It should be a shared experience with all the risks that such a relationship implies.

There are many ways to look at the process of training. In this paper it will be seen in terms of the steps set forth in Figure 1: developing job standards, identifying needs, determining objectives and content, selecting methods and materials, obtaining instructional resources, conducting the training and evaluation and feedback.

Developing Job Standards

The training process does not start with formal instruction. The first step must be the identification and agreement on what the job requires. In industry, this would be called a job analysis or at least a job description. It should indicate the duties to be performed; the possible sequence, and the outcome that can be expected. In human services there is a lack of job descriptions in many areas and training should not start until these have been developed.

The development of job standards should involve trainers and trainees. Those who are to utilize the services of the trainee should likewise be involved in setting forth of the tasks to be done. The very process of developing these job standards can likewise almost be a training experience for those involved.

There is a temptation to rush ahead and start training without accomplishing this step. It is all too easy to make the assumption that "of course, everybody knows what the typist has to do." But is this common knowledge? Check it out and results may be confusing. Even words per minute become meaningless when one considers the possibilities: gross words, net words (assuming everybody knows what these terms mean), mailable letters, pages per hour, etc.. Even this does not encompass any related duties that the supervisor may expect of the typist. It is best to clarify the job market first, the consumer should be queried. What does the employer or supervisor expect of the trained employee?

The standards should not be just generally agreed upon but must be written down. If the individuals concerned cannot agree, in writing, on the tasks to be performed, then how can the trainer develop program and how can the trainee know what is expected of him?

A common complaint is that this step is too time consuming and busy people just cannot be expected to sit down to develop this detail. Unfortunately, there is no choice. It must be done. If the agency who will utilize the trainee cannot do the job they may have to obtain the outside resource to do it for them. Still, they cannot escape their own responsibility to be part of the identification of the job standards which must precede any good training program

Identifying Needs

All individuals have training needs, for needs are constantly being created and therefore training never ends. However, individuals also have experiences and capabilities so that all training should not start at the same place with the same fundamentals. Simply defined, the training needs of individuals are the differences between what the job demands in the way of what they should know and to what the individual must know and do on the job (job standards). Unless it is clear as to what the individual must know and do on the job, it is impossible to identify what he needs.

For a person being prepared for a job he has not previously done, the identification of his needs may not be too difficult. It would be necessary to know what he can do. There are many methods for determining this, and the following is not meant to be comprehensive.

Observation: Where the tasks to be accomplished are visual ones, or those which are readily identifiable, it may be possible to place the trainee in such a position and observe how he behaves as a receptionist. Of course, the observer must be trained and the situation must be one in which poor performance by the trainee does not jeopardize the functioning of the organization or imply too much threat to the trainee.

Questionnaire: If knowledge must precede behavior it is sometimes possible to determine the level of knowledge through a questionnaire. Depending on how it is developed, the questionnaire can also be seen as a form of written test. If the trainee has had previous negative experiences with written tests, the trainer must be cautious to avoid this experience from prejudicing the trainee's attitude toward the training program.

Interview: Where the written ability of the trainee is in doubt, and written tests are undesirable, the interview may prove successful. The trainer should avoid having the situation become merely a question-and-answer procedure but rather the involvement of both individuals in a process of mutually identifying the experiences and the capabilities of the trainee as related to the job. Although such a process is time consuming it may reduce the amount of training time needed before the individual can be placed on the job.

Performance Tests: Where the trainee must be able to do some tasks, previously identified under job standards, his needs may become very evident by having him try to do the job. This would differ from observation in that the performance might be in some situation removed from the actual job scene and therefore without the threat to the individual who cannot do the job too well.

Group Self-Analysis: If there are a number of trainees of approximately the same level and all expected to do the same job,it may be possible to identify needs on a group rather than individual basis. For many of the persons in the human services area this may be more desirable as such a group process can be very supportive. The trainee may not feel so inadequate when he discovers there are other mature individuals who likewise have training needs.

Determining Objectives and Content

From the needs identified earlier it is now necessary to select those which must be met through the training program. These needs must now be stated in terms of specific objectives. The objectives must be clear and without ambiguity. The trainee should be involved, when possible, in stating the objectives so they become his expectations as well as the expectations of those who are conducting the program.

The content of the training program must support the objectives. This is not as easy to accomplish as might be expected. Each of us has pet theories, accumulations of knowledge, and even prejudices which we think should be shared. It is too easy to include these in a program because it would be "good if the trainee knew this."

To avoid encumbering the content with material that is not essential, one can look at content by remembering DIG (The following is based in part on a conceptualization by Dr. Leonard Silvern.)

D - Directly related to the job
I - Indirectly related to the job
G - Generally related to the job

Material which is unrelated should not be considered at this time.

Using the same approach, the content of a training program can also be seen as:

D - Definitely needed if the trainee is to perform the established tasks
I - Important for him to know, but he could do the job without this material
G - Good for him to know, but would not severely affect job performance

For example, a Field Representative working for OEO must know (D) the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 and the amendments. It would be helpful if he also was familiar with the Congressional hearings and controversies over various sections of the law (I). As both the Act and the hearings are part of our government system he should also know how laws are made (G). All together they form a cohesive pattern but the relative importance of each as content must be differentiated.

After content has been identified and classified, a sequence must be established. There are many ways to look at sequence. One approach is to go from the specific to the general while another is to go from the general to the specific. There are many other ways to view the sequence, but the essential element is that there must be some order which appears logical to the trainer and the trainee.

Selecting Methods and Materials

A mistake often made by persons inexperienced in training is to reverse this section and the previous one. This happens when somebody enthusiastically comments, "I know an excellent film that we must use" before there has been agreement on what is to be the content of the program. In training, we have borrowed a truism from architecture that might be helpful: function determines form. In essence, first we must decide what we want to do (content) and then we can identify the form (methods and materials) which can best do the job.

One way of looking at materials might be the following: Oral-teacher directed: lectures, lecture-discussion, lecture-demonstration. This need not be avoided, but should be carefully planned. However, as it is probably the easiest to work with, and can be very ego-satisfying to the teacher, it is probably the most used.

Self-instructional: Correspondence, programmed instruction and organized reading. The trend to use this approach is increasing and has great merit. Unfortunately, there is still too much emphasis on "hardware" or the use of machines and similar devices. The method is particularly useful under certain circumstances which have not yet been fully explored.

Audio-visual aids: Projected such as films, slides, closed circuit television; non-projected such as chalk board, flannel board, easel with newsprint, tape recorder, magnetic board. Useful in a variety of circumstances, but avoid the danger of putting on a show and entertaining, rather than training.

Group Involvement: Dyads, triads, buzz groups, work groups, case study. Ways of involving the learner in his own learning by having him react to or work with material in a small enough situation so that he cannot be overly passive.

Simulations: Role playing, in-basket, vestibule, business games. Training done as close to the real situation as possible which can be very productive but difficult to develop and conduct.

The above is very brief and is only meant as an indication of the variety of methods possible and some of the cautions which must be observed.

Another way of looking at methods is to view them in terms of the kinds of change to be brought about. (See Figure 2)

Obtaining Instructional Resources

All the methods discussed, with the exception of self-instructional, require the use of some form of instructor. He might be a teacher, group leader, lecturer, or any other of a myriad of titles which might be assigned to individuals who assist in the learning process. Even the self-instructional methods require the use of somebody who can guide and assist the trainee in the selection and utilization of the appropriate self-instructional technique.

Instructional resources are essentially either in-house or out-of-house. That is, the resource might be part of the agency itself. If there is a training director, he is obviously the key in-house person who will either instruct directly or train others to instruct. Sometimes, it is feasible and desirable to have other agency personnel available to serve as trainers. One approach is to assign the personnel to work under a qualified trainer for a period of time so as to bring the reality of the work of the agency into the training situation. Another approach is to assign personnel on a part-time basis, say for two hours a week, to conduct training. There are many other variations of this approach but rather than follow any given path the agency must identify the ways in which its regular personnel can make the best contribution to training while at the same time carrying out the regular work to which they are assigned.

It is sometimes more advantageous to go out-of-house for a training resource. This might apply to the entire process of training, but more usually it will be in the conduct of the training itself. Such use of outside resources becomes important when the agency lacks sufficient staff, does not have certain kinds of specialities represented on its staff, or finds it less expensive in trainers. When using outside resources, the agency must be careful not to abdicate its own ultimate responsibility for the training. The resource is to help not to take over.

The pressures on our society today for trained manpower have resulted in a phenomenal growth of various groups claiming to have expertise in the field of training. There are no guidelines that have yet been developed whereby the validity of an outside resource can be easily determined. One test is to contact other agencies for whom they have trained and obtain an assessment from them. Such data will be contaminated by a host of factors, yet is one of the few ways available to quickly assess capability. Another approach commonly used is the pilot program or demonstration program with the choice being left to the agency to terminate at any point where the outside resource does not seem to be meeting the agency's needs.

Conducting the Training

The actual conduct of sessions is often overlooked. The work done earlier can easily be lost if the actual conduct of the training does not have careful preparation. Some obvious examples are in the use of audio-visual aids: if the room cannot be adequately darkened, the type of aid to be used will be circumscribed. If the room has fixed furniture, the decision to use small group work may be seriously hampered. Still under the heading of physical facilities is that there are adequate ventilation and light. The facility should be one which is conducive to training and recognizes the learners as adults. It need not be a classroom - this is not always the best facility. The facility should be related to the objectives, needs, content, and method of the training.

The training may also need logistic support in the way of supplies and equipment. An easel without newsprint is as meaningless as a chalk board without the chalk. If films are to be used, they must be on hand in time and have been reviewed prior to the showing.

When conducting the training, time components should be agreed upon and honored. If the session is to be two hours, it should be that length and not go half-an-hour overtime. The individuals concerned may have other commitments but may find it uncomfortable to disengage from the training session. Physically they may have to remain, but emotionally they have been lost and their learning has been blocked. Also, if the session is to start at 9:00 a.m., a start at 9:30 a.m. may be undesirable. Of course, the trainer cannot be absolutely rigid, but when the session must differ from what had been planned, the trainee should be involved in exploring alternatives.

Some trainees will not attend all the sessions. In some situations this may not be significant. However, to the degree that a trainee misses a session, he may be less qualified to perform the tasks expected of him. Absence should be watched carefully, but not handled punitively. When an adult is absent from a training session there is usually more than a whim involved. The reasons must be carefully explored with all those concerned. Absence can also be the early sign of an adult preparing to drop-out. The trainee may see himself as being "pushed-out" or "spit-out". Whatever the perception, the training program must have provision for identifying and working with those for whom there is an indication that the experience will be less than successful.

On the other side, there must be adequate recognition for those who do attend and successfully complete the program. The ultimate recognition, for some, may be in being able to do a job or do it better. For others, some more immediate form of recognition may be necessary. The recognition should not be pasted on to the end of the program but must be built in as part of the training process.

Evaluation and Feedback

Evaluation tends to frighten individuals who feel that they cannot adequately accomplish this task. Actually, we are all constantly evaluating as we make decisions. For training, the process of evaluation must be more organized, but need not approach the realm of a research project.

The first question is one of what to evaluate. The answer is simple. The training process started with job standards. Then we added individuals who needed to be trained to do the job up to the standards. The evaluation then is, can the individual perform the tasks at the level previously agreed upon?

At the same time, we also need to evaluate the process of instruction and the entire training plan. However, this evaluation is only in terms of the over-riding evaluation of the performance of the individual.

There are many ways to design evaluation and three of the most useful ways are:

Tests: which are given as part of training. The most common is the pre-test and post-test. That is, develop a test which is related to what the job requires and what he will learn during training. This provides the trainee with a fix point as to where he is starting. A comparable test given at the end allows him to see how he has progressed. Such tests can be verbal or performance, depending upon the job and the trainee.

Observation and Interview: This is usually best done after the trainee has left the training situation and is on the job and performing. Observation should not be done without the knowledge of the trainee and those he works with. Sometimes, involving his peers in the evaluation process can provide additional learning for all concerned.

Records: of attendance and performance might be indicative. However, care should be taken that other factors are not being evaluated--factors other than training. A review of completed work may indicate where training has not been entirely successful, or other training needs that had not previously been identified.

The trainee should be involved in the evaluation process and often in the designing of the evaluation. If he knows the criteria for performance and evaluation he is more likely to be able to learn and use what he has learned. The results of the training should also be prepared with those who are responsible for the training and for those who are providing the funds. These groups may be within the agency or outside. Essentially, they are concerned with one main point, "What did they get for their training dollar?" It is a good question, but not always easy to answer. Those who are funding the training should likewise be involved in developing the criteria. In other words, what do they expect to happen as a result of their investment in training? They are entitled to a response.

Conclusion

TRAINING: The development of manpower is crucial to the War on Poverty. There is much we still do not know about developing people, but we should try to use what has already proven valid. By viewing training as a total process, rather than just the conduct of classes, it is believed that the quality of training can be improved.

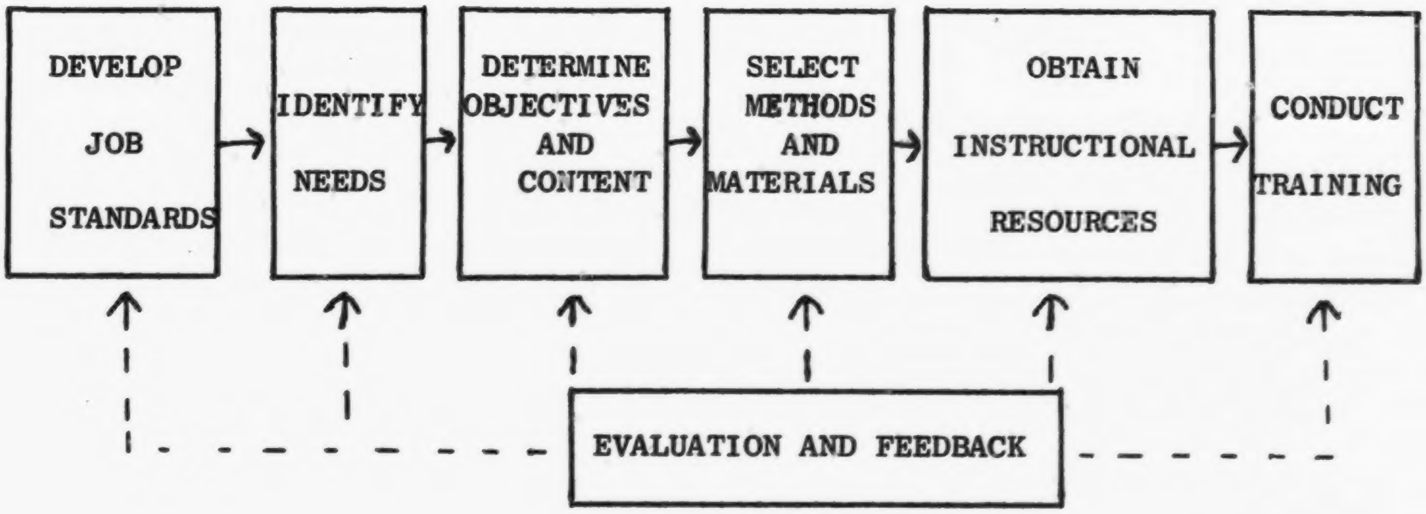
DEVELOP JOB STANDARDS
IDENTIFY NEEDS
DETERMINE OBJECTIVES AND CONTENT
SELECT METHODS AND MATERIALS
OBTAIN INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES
CONDUCT TRAINING
EVALUATION AND FEEDBACK

Fig. 1. - The Training Process

Type of Behavioral Change	Most Appropriate Methods
KNOWLEDGE (Generalizations about experience; the internalization of information)	Lecture, panel, symposium Reading Audio-visual aids Book-based discussion
INSIGHT AND UNDERSTANDING (The application of information to experience)	Feedback devices Problem-solving discussion Laboratory experimentation Exams and essays Audience participation Case problems
SKILLS (The incorporation of new ways of performing through practice)	Practice exercises Practice role-playing Drill Demonstration Practicum
ATTITUDES (The adoption of new feelings through experiencing greater success with them)	Reverse role-playing Permissive discussion Counseling-consultation Environmental support Case method
VALUES (The adoption and priority arrangement of beliefs)	Biographical reading & drama Philosophical discussion Sermons and workshop Reflection
INTERESTS (Satisfying exposure to new activities)	Trips Audio-visual aids Reading Creative arts Recitals, pageants

(Developed by Dr. Malcolm S. Knowles)

Fig. 2

Principles for Selecting Methods to Achieve Particular Objectives

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